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UNIVERSAL

GEOGRAPHY,

OR

A DESCRIPTION

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

Analytical, Synoptical, and Elementary Tables.

By M. MALTE BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION, DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

VOLUME II.

CONTAINING THE DESCRIPTION OF ASIA, WITH THE EXCEPTION OF INDIA

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SYSTEM

OF

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK XXIV.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ASIA.

It was in Asia, according to the most authentic accounts, that arts and civilization had their origin; and it is with this division of the globe that we shall begin our series of descriptions, which will in some measure resemble a voyage round the world.

Name of Asia.

There is no evidence to prove that the ancient nations of Asia recognised those grand divisions of the globe to which we have given the name of quarters, or that they distinguished the division in which they lived by the name of Asia. The conjecture of the learned Bochart, who derives this name from a Hebrew or Phenician word,* signifying *the middle*, has therefore no foundation in history. Equally little confidence is due to the speculations of some etymologists, upon an obscure relation of the name Asia to the word *As*, a general term for a divinity among

* Bochart. Phaleg. IV. c. 33.

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many European nations.* To confine ourselves, then, to admitted facts, the name of Asia was applied by Homer, Herodotus, and Euripides,† to a district of Lydia watered by the Caÿster, and in which the geographers of a later age distinguished a tribe called Asiones, and a city called Asia. It appears probable, that the Greeks, in proportion as their knowledge was enlarged, extended this name by little and little, from the district to which it was first applied, till it embraced the whole of Asia Minor, and ultimately the other extensive regions of the east. It was thus that the French extended the name of the duchy of Allemagne to the whole of Germany; and that the ancient canton of Italia, in a remote corner of Calabria, imposed its name on the great peninsula of which it forms so inconsiderable a portion.

Limits of Asia.

The limits of Asia are partly natural and permanent, and partly defined by arrangements which admit of difference of opinion. On the south-west, the straits of Babelmandel and the Arabian gulf separate it from Africa, with which it unites at the isthmus of Suez. Towards the west, the Mediterranean Sea, the Archipelago, the straits of the Dardanelles and of Constantinople, the Black Sea, and the straits of Caffa, divide it from Europe; but from the straits of Caffa to those of Waigatz, near Nova Zembla, the boundary is uncertain. The opinion most generally followed, is

The Tanais.

that of many of the ancients, who regarded the Tanais, now the Don, as the natural limit of these two divisions of the world; but the tortuous course of this river, of which the ancients had very vague ideas, has led geographers into a labyrinth of contradictions;‡ by some, a line is traced from the mouth of the Don to that of the Dwina, in the White Sea; by others to the mouth of the Ohi; but both methods are entirely arbitrary. The academicians of St. Petersburgh, however, have at last satisfactorily shewn, that the chain of the Uralian mountains

* Comp. Bayer, Comment. Petropolit. V. 334.

† Eurip. Bacchæ, v. 64.

‡ See the maps of Sanson, Delisle, Homann, &c.

constitutes the natural boundary of Europe and Northern Asia. To reconcile this limit, now generally adopted, with the ancient claims of the Tanais, Pallas has proposed to trace a line of demarcation, following the exterior margin of those vast salt plains which bound the Caspian Sea on the north, leaving in Asia the Russian governments of Orenbourg and Astracan, crossing the Wolga at Zarizin, and thence following the course of the Don.* This arrangement of Pallas has the disadvantage of dividing the course of a large river into two parts, belonging to separate quarters of the world, and of being founded on circumstances which, though natural, are not marked with sufficient distinctness for the purposes of geography. It is better to follow the opinion of Herodotus, Plato, Erastosthenes, and other ancients, and abandon almost entirely the course of the Don, and fix the frontier of Asia, by a line which naturally terminates at the isthmus of Caucasus. This line is marked by the course of the rivers of Manitch and Kooma. It is by the beds of these two currents that the Palus Meotis and the Caspian Sea would mix their waters, if their level were about 220 feet higher. The Manitch falls into the Don, which thus preserves for some leagues its ancient prerogative of separating Europe from Asia. Upon mature reflection, we prefer this boundary to that which follows the course of the Kooban and the Tereck. From the mouth of the Kooma, the Caspian Sea will mark out the frontier of Europe to the mouth of the great river of Jaik, to which Catherine II. gave the more geographical name of Ural. This river, in conducting us to the mountains of the same name, will complete the natural limits towards the west.

Western limits according to Pallas.

A preferable line.

From the straits of Waigatz, the Frozen Sea forms the boundary of Asia. It is uncertain whether the lands discovered to the north of Siberia are islands, like Nova Zembla, or the extremities of West Greenland; whether the Frozen Sea itself is wide enough to be called a sea, or is

Separation from America.

* Commentarii Petropol. 1. Plan of a Description of Russia. Pallas, Observ. sur les montagnes, etc.

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only a long channel confined by lands and islands: it is certain, however, that it bounds northern Asia on all sides, and that this part of the world is also completely separated from North America by Behring's Straits. Commencing by these straits, the Great or the Pacific Ocean forms the eastern limit of Asia. The Aleutian islands, and those which are in their vicinity, thus belong to America, being only a prolongation of the peninsula of Alashka.

South-east frontier.

But what frontier can be assigned to Asia towards the south-east? Must we say, that the Marian or Ladrone islands, the Philippines, the Moluccas, the Celebes, Borneo, and Java, make part of Asia, whilst New Guinea and New Britain do not belong to it? All natural limits cease as soon as we enter into that immense archipelago which extends between the great ocean and the Indian seas. Yet we cannot avoid considering the straits of Malacca, and the passage between the Philippine islands and Formosa, as the most natural frontier of Asia on this side. All the islands to the east of this line, as far as New Zealand and the Society Islands, should evidently form a fifth division of the world, of which New Holland is the continent or principal land. A sight of a modern chart of the South Sea will be sufficient to convince every well informed person of the advantages which will arise from the adoption of this arrangement in the methodical distribution of geographical descriptions.

Southern limits.

To the south, the Indian sea separates Asia from Africa; so that the Maldivian islands belong to Asia; the Isle of France, Bourbon, and Mahé to Africa, though, in the idiom of commerce and navigation, these last islands are sometimes spoken of as if they belonged to the East Indies. The island of Socotra, which incontestibly belongs to Africa, is, however, in a great many works, described as in Asia.*

Dimensions of Asia.

Circumscribed within the boundaries now pointed out, Asia presents a surface that may be estimated at 154,000,000

* Perhaps it would be still better to restrict the names of the great divisions to continents, and to take the islands in arbitrary groupes, or speak of them as belonging to the respective divisions when they lie contiguous, without attaching any permanent importance to this part of geographical nomenclature.—TR.

English square miles. The greatest length of this continent, taken obliquely from the isthmus of Suez to Behring's Straits, is about 7370 English miles; taken under the 30th parallel, from Suez to Nanking, its length is less than 6000 miles; under the 40th parallel, from the Dardanelles to Cova, it is 6000 miles; and under the polar circle 3528 miles; the breadth from the north to the south, from Cape Comorin in India, to Cape Taimura in Siberia, about 4230 miles. We find the principal mass of the continent of Asia situated in the northern temperate zone. That part which belongs to the torrid zone is about one-seventh of the whole. Only one-seventeenth lies within the polar circle; but other physical circumstances extend the influence of the polar cold over nearly one-half of this continent. In order to form a correct idea of the great contrast of temperature which prevails in Asia, we must first make some observations on the five great physical regions, or zones, into which nature has divided that part of the world.

Our attention is first called to that immense plateau, or elevated plain, which rises between the 30th and 50th parallels, and which extends from the Caspian Sea to the Lake of Baikal, and from the sources of the Indus to the wall of China. It is known by the incorrect name of the plateau of Tartary; but may be more properly called Central Asia. It is an assemblage of naked mountains, enormous rocks, and very elevated plains: in these high regions two masses of mountains shoot up, and form the nucleus of all the great chains which traverse Asia. The one is formed by the mountains of Thibet, in whose valleys eternal snows are found, though within thirty degrees of the equator; they probably have an elevation of more than 20,000 feet. It is from hence that the chains of mountains commence which, under the names of Kenteisse, Himalaya, and others, extend towards Hindostan, and in that peninsula join the chain of mountains called Ghauts, which terminates at Cape Comorin. The Mustag, which is the Mount *Imaus* of the ancients, extends on one side into Tartary, and is connected by the

I. The central plateau. Chain of mountains.

Mountains of Thibet and India.

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mountains of Persia with Mount Ararat, Mount Taurus, and Caucasus, the nucleus of western Asia. On the other side, numerous chains descend into the peninsula beyond the Ganges, which they divide into long parallel valleys; one of them prolongs itself into the peninsula of Malacca, and then appears to pass into that immense archipelago, which we consider as a fifth division of the world. Mountains as high, but nearer to each other, fill the northern and western provinces of China, and terminate in rapid declivities. To the north of these chains of mountains, there is an elevated plain, perhaps the highest region of the globe,—It is the vast desert of Kobi or Shamo. Here we find only salt lakes and small rivers, which are lost in a mass of sand and gravel; some few tracts of pasture, or stinted shrubs are the only signs of vegetation. The length of this plateau, from the source of the Indus and the Ganges, beyond that of the Amoor or Segalien, comprises from twenty-three to twenty-four degrees of longitude, and a breadth varying from three to ten degrees of latitude. The plateau is terminated to the north by another range of mountains, whose highest summit, according to Pallas, is named Bogdo. From thence, as from a common centre, branch out two chains of mountains, one considerably larger than the other. That which goes to the south, under the name of Mossart, appears only a sort of girdle connecting the plateau of Mongol Tartary with that of Thibet; a similar secondary branch, under the name of Alak, bends towards the west, traverses independent Tartary, particularly Bucharia, and approaches the Uralian Mountains towards lake Aral; whilst on the other side it is connected with the Beloor Mountains, which separate the two Bucharias, and which unite the mountains of eastern Persia and the north of India. Thus, towards the west the two principal masses are connected in every direction; and we may consider them as two summits of one and the same plateau. But let us return to the great branches of the Bogdo, one of which extends towards the east, under the name of Zangai, occupies Mongol and Chinese Tartary, and terminates towards the seas of Corea

Desert of Kobi or of Shamo.

Mountains of Mongol Tartary.

Beloor mountains.

and Japan. It is rather a long plateau than a chain properly so called. Another branch, the *Altai*, is prolonged into Eastern Siberia. This is interrupted by deep defiles through which the rivers of Obi and Yenisei descend towards the plains of Siberia. A similar branch forms, to the east of Lake Baikal, the Mountains of Daooria, or of Nershinsk, which extend towards Kamstchatka and Behring's Straits.

Mountains of Siberia.

Such is the great Asiatic chain; it is the most extensive system of mountains that has hitherto been discovered on the globe. Perhaps the Cordilleras alone rival it in elevation; while the central mountains of Africa may equal it in extent. The numerous and great rivers which issue from the central plateau of Asia on all sides, the sterility of the soil, and the intensity of the cold which exists there in all seasons, even in the plains and valleys, are better evidences of its immense height than the vague mensuration of Mr. Crawford.

Two great regions of Asia are attached to the central plateau on the northern and southern side. Southern Asia, or India, is protected from the cold blasts of the north by the mountains of Thibet, and declines greatly towards the equator. Watered by numerous and large rivers, its rich soil always receives the heat of the sun, and is impregnated with the exhalations of a sea which the winter never influences. What a contrast between those fertile countries and the gloomy solitudes of Northern Asia, that vast Siberia, which extends towards the pole and the frozen sea, and never feels the soft breezes of the tropic, nor the modifying gales which come from a fluid ocean.

II. Southern region.

III. Northern region.

Nature has bestowed on each of these regions, a physical character which human industry can never change, or even modify in any sensible degree. As long as the present equilibrium of the globe lasts, the ice will always be collected at the mouths of the Obi and the Lena; the winds will always blow in the deserts of Shamo; and Thibet will never see the snows of its Alps disappear before the rays of the sun, which at no great distance, scorch the tropical regions. On this

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account, the Tartar as naturally pursues an agricultural and pastoral life as the Siberian that of a hunter. The Indian, in appearance, and perhaps in appearance only, more happy, owes in a great measure to his climate that effeminacy and indolence which brings upon him the scourge of domestic tyranny and the ravages of foreign adventurers.

IV. Eastern region.

Two great regions now remain to be considered, those of Eastern and Western Asia. The first, which is insensibly confounded with the central plateau, presents three distinct divisions. A large chain of mountains covered in part with eternal snow, extends from the plateau of Mongol Tartary to Corea; to the north of these mountains, the Amoor flows at first towards the south-east, but very soon towards the north-east, where the land is very elevated, and the climate the coldest in the northern temperate zone. Those countries generally known under the name of Chinese Tartary, resemble Northern Asia, although they are situated under the latitudes of France. The mass of cold which, if we may so express it, overhangs Tartary, and on the other side, the uniform temperature of the Great Ocean, joined to an aspect directly east, give to China Proper a colder climate than that of southern Asia. This vast country, although it passes the tropic, and does not extend beyond the 40th degree of northern latitude, comprehends every European climate.

The third part of the eastern region of Asia, is formed by that prodigious chain of islands, and volcanic peninsulas, which rises at a little distance from the continent, and presents as it were, an immense barrier, to the fury of the ocean. This maritime region, though almost surrounded by the ocean, cannot be considered separate from the continent of Asia. It possesses all the variety of temperature to which its peculiar situation exposes it.

V. Western region.

The fifth grand region of Asia is more detached from the mass of the continent than any of the others. The Caspian sea, the Black sea, the Mediterranean, and the Persian and Arabian gulphs, give to Western Asia some resemblance to a great peninsula. We may with some degree

of truth assert that this region is as much opposed to the eastern region, as that of the south is to the north. Eastern Asia is in general damp, Western Asia is a dry, and in some places quite an arid region; the one has a stormy, and very often a cloudy sky, the other enjoys constant breezes, and a great serenity of atmosphere; the one has chains of steep mountains separated by marshy plains, the other is composed of plateaus, in a great measure sandy, and very little inferior in elevation to the mountains which rise out of them. In eastern Asia, we see very long rivers running near each other, whilst, in western Asia, there are only two or three of any considerable size; but, as a sort of compensation, there are numerous lakes without any outlet. Lastly, the proximity of the immense burning sands of Africa communicates to a great part of western Asia a temperature much warmer than that which even southern Asia enjoys.

In order to give greater precision to these general sketches of the physical regions of Asia, it will be proper to class the rivers of this continent according to the basins or seas into which they respectively flow, which we have done in the following table, in which the length of the course of each river is also pointed out. Those rivers which are printed in an inner line are such as flow into that which precedes.

Basin of the Frozen Sea; Northern Declivity of the Plateau of Mongol Tartary.

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.	Synoptic Table of Rivers.
Obi	347	2151	
Irtysh	210	1302	
Tobol	80	496	
Yenisei	340	2108	
Tunguska *upper*	132	818	
Tunguska *lower*	137	849	
Piasiga	41	254	
Khatonga	48	297	
Olenek	75	465	
Lena	334	2071	
Vilui	100	620	

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Aldan	125	775
Jana	49	304
Indigbirka	108	669
Kovyma	120	744

Northern Basin of the Great Ocean; Eastern Declivity of Siberia, and of the Plateau of Mongol Tartary.

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Anadyr	70	434
Kamtchatka	40	248
Amoor or Segalien (including the Szilka)	294	1823
Songari-Ula	100	620

Basin of the Sea of China, making a part of the Basin of the Great Ocean; Eastern Declivity of the Plateau of Thibet.

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Hoang-Ho (the Yellow River)	320	1984
Yang-Tse-Kiang (the Blue River)	368	2281
Hon-Kian	120	744

Southern Declivity of the Plateau of Thibet.

(a) *Basin of the Sea of China, and of the Gulf of Siam.*

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Me-Kong, or Cambodja	300?	1860
Me-Nan	250?	1550

(b) *Basin of the India Sea.*

	Myriametres.	English Miles.
Irabaddy or River of Pegu	290	1798
Ken-Duen	150	930
Tsampo or Booramputer	200	1240
Ganges	250	1550
Godaveri	90	558
Kistna	86	533
Nerbudda	81	502
Indus or Sinda	195?	1209

Declivities and Basins of the Interior of Asia.

(a) *Basin of Lake Aral: Western declivity of the great central plateau.*

	Length of Course. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Syr Daria	110	1682
Amu Daria or Gihon	145	899

(b) *In the Little Bucharia, towards the Kobi desert.*

	Length of Course. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Yerkend or Mehescha	100	620

(c) *Basin of the Lake of Baikal.*

	Myriametres.	English Miles.
Selinga	76	471

Declivities of Western Asia, or of Caucasus—of Ararat—and of Taurus.

(a) *Towards the Caspian Sea.*

	Length of their Courses. Myriametres.	English Miles.
Kur or Cyrus	46	285
Araxes	42	260

(b) *Towards the Persian Gulf.*

	Myriametres.	English Miles.
Euphrates (up to the gulf)	185	1147
Tigris	100	620

(c) *Towards the Arabian Gulf, or Red Sea.*

No river, and few rivulets.

(d) *Towards the Mediterranean and Archipelago.*

	Myriametres.	English Miles.
Orontes	28	173
Meander	40	248

(e) *Towards the Black Sea.*

	Myriametres.	English Miles.
Sangarius (Sakaria)	40	248
Halys (Kizil-Irmak)	54	335
Phasis or Rione	21	130

Proportion of these rivers.

In giving an account of all the rivers laid down in the

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the maps of Asia, we have formed the following estimate of the proportional volumes, or, to speak more exactly, of the surfaces of the running waters of that part of the world.

The total taken as unity		1.00
The rivers of Siberia	flowing to the north, are as	0.31
	..... to the east .	0.02
..... of China and Chinese Tartary . .		0.15
..... of all India		0.27
..... of the centre of Asia . . .		0.08
..... of the Turkey in Asia . . .		0.10
..... of Persia (with Armenia) . . .		0.06
..... of Arabia		0.03

In order to form a conclusion from these data, in regard to the dryness of one country compared to another, we must consider their respective surfaces. Arabia, for example, is certainly much drier than Persia or Turkey, but India and China are not less copiously watered than Siberia. It is the smaller extent of surface of land in proportion to that of the streams, in any natural division, that indicates their comparative dryness.

Salt lakes without issue.

The continent of Asia, forming a considerable body of land, and but little intersected by seas, ought naturally to contain in its interior great accumulations of water. It contains, in fact, the largest lake known, viz. the Caspian Sea. In general, the lakes of Asia are distinguished by the saline, brackish, or sulphureous nature of their water: many of them have no outlet. Asia Minor affords us in this respect a sample of the great continent, of which it makes a part. The interior of Anatolia and Caramania contains a series of salt lakes without any outlet; that of Tazla is very considerable.

In the western region.

Following the most elevated parts of Western Asia, we see the lakes of Van and Urmia, whose brackish waters extend over an immense space. In Syria, several lakes of this nature succeed each other along the chain of Libanus and Anti-Libanus. The most celebrated is the lake Asphaltites, or the Dead Sea, in Palestine, the

waters of which are bituminous, and cover from 450 to 500 square miles.

All the lakes of Arabia are formed by the confluence of rain waters and springs, which are either lost or absorbed in the sand. But these waters are of very limited extent. The deserts of Persia, similar in other respects to those of Arabia, present the same description of lakes, but larger. That of Zeré covers an extent of 1074 square miles, and receives a river whose course is 400 miles long, besides several small ones.

Arabia and Persia.

The western side of the plateau of Tartary is covered with salt lakes, without any outlet. The Caspian Sea covers an extent of 120,000 square miles. It is the largest salt lake known. The lake, or Sea of Aral, contains 9600 square miles. The Salt Lake, between the Aral and the Caspian Sea, those of Aksakol and Telegul, that of Balkashi, or Palcati, and a number of smaller lakes, either salt or brackish, distinguish this region, which declines by successive terraces from the centre of Asia towards the Caspian Sea, and which is opposite to another region entirely covered with plains, inclining from the centre of European Russia towards the same sea. These two basins appear to be both impregnated with salt. It has been concluded from thence, that the Caspian Sea formerly covered all these countries. This is possible with respect to the plains of Astracan, which are not much elevated above it. But it is not probable with respect to the countries situated to the east and north-east of that sea; for the land rises considerably even between lake Aral and the Caspian, and still more between the former and the other salt lakes. Besides, there are some of these salt lakes far beyond the limits which the Caspian Sea in its greatest extent could have reached. The northern declivity of the plateau of Tartary contains numerous lakes, such as the Ebelain, the Janysh, the Karazuzkie, and others. The lake *Czany*, which has no outlet, is also brackish, which is indeed the case with all stagnant waters on a soil impregnated with saline substances. These

In the central regions.

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masses of stagnant water are again found at a much more elevated level upon the vast plateaus of Mongol Tartary and Thibet. The high plains, surrounded by mountains, which form the country of the Calmucks, inclose a great many lakes without any outlet, which are fed by small streams or rivers. The Kirkir-nor, a lake which is found upon the mountains, from whence the Irtysh and the Obi rise, receives a river whose course is from 70 to 80 leagues. The elevated plain between the mountains of Mongolia and those of Thibet, the two summits of Asia, is filled with very considerable rivers, which disappear in the sand, or feed lakes which have no outlet. Such is the Yerkend, which runs into the lake of Lop.

Thibet, or the southern and most elevated plateau of Asia, is singularly rich in lakes, a great number of which have no outlet. The Terkiri contains 2300 square miles. If we draw lines from Terkiri, one to the north of 220 miles, the other to the west of 470 miles, we shall find 23 other lakes, which have no outlet, or which flow one into the other. We remark amongst others, to the north-east of Thibet, the Hoho-nor, or Koko-nor, of 1840 square miles, in a very elevated situation, which has no outlet.

Other lakes.

Lakes without outlets are therefore common to all the western and central parts of Asia, but not to the north of Siberia, nor to China, or India. The low parts of Siberia are covered with immense marshes, almost contiguous to each other. The large lakes of China are found in the middle of the low and marshy countries, and, in a geographical point of view, are only remarkable from their contiguity. They seem to confirm the tradition of the Chinese, that a part of this country has been recently left by the sea, or rather by two long gulfs formed by the rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang. The two peninsulas of India have no remarkable lakes, nor any without outlets. This is a proof that the land throughout has a continued declivity.

Plains of Asia.

From this view of the hydrography of Asia it appears that

this continent is entirely different from America, and contains but very few of those low plains which the ocean formerly covered. Asia presents, without doubt, some plains of this kind, particularly an immense one along the frozen sea, a much smaller one in China, one at the opening of the Ganges, Tehama in Arabia, Mesopotamia, the plain of the Meander, and some others; but the immense majority of the plains of Asia are more like vast platforms on the tops of mountains. Sometimes they are raised at certain distances, like terraces, beyond which are other mountains with their valleys; sometimes they are of considerable extent, preserving the same level, though slightly interrupted by local declivities. Hence the lakes without an outlet, and rivers which rise and disappear in the same desert; hence also those sudden changes from intense cold to insupportable heat, which we find on descending from Thibet into India, or from the interior of Persia towards the coasts. The sudden change of the level produces this effect, although the latitude may not have sensibly varied. The change of temperature which we feel in going from Switzerland into Lombardy gives us a faint idea of it. It is to the same conformation of the country that we must attribute those periodical and constant winds which blow even in the interior of Asia. I do not allude to the monsoons of India, which depend on the annual motion of the sun, but to that long duration of the same wind which we observe in countries at a distance from the tropics. This effect is probably owing to the absence of gulphs and seas, whose exhalations and currents might alter the nature of the wind, or change its direction. The chilling winds of Siberia ascend even to the summits of the centre; and if sufficiently elevated to pass the first chains, they may extend to the heights of Thibet. The wind from the east, charged with fogs, covers at once all the lower parts of China; but as we get farther into the temperate zone, all regularity in the united action of the sea and the atmosphere gradually cease. Thus, at Japan, cold and heat, storms and calms, succeed each other almost as rapid-

Connection between the country and the climate.

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ly as in Great Britain. China is liable to these variations in a less sensible manner than Holland, either on account of the greater humidity of the sea breezes, or the dryness of those which have passed over the land. In short, if we penetrate the temperate oriental countries, the seasons always become more constant, but colder in proportion as we approach the centre. Nearly the same changes are perceptible in going from the west to the east of Europe.

Increase of the cold in Asia towards the east.

In northern Asia, there is another feature which strikes us as very remarkable, in comparing that region with the parts of Europe situated under the same latitudes. The cold of northern Asia always increases as we proceed towards the east. This augmentation is so great, that, upon the coast of Tartary, situated under the same latitudes as France, the winter commences in the month of September. Several causes combine, without doubt, to produce this phenomenon. In the first place, there rise between Corea and the countries upon the river Amoor, vast mountains covered with glaciers; a second, and still greater mass of mountains separates the Amoor from the Lena: all the coasts of the north-east are also extremely steep; and, we may add, that the seas which surround these frozen countries are almost always covered with thick and cold fogs, which intercept the rays of the sun. A third cause may be found in the absolute want of inhabitants, and consequently of cultivation. In eastern Siberia, according to the official reports, there is scarcely one individual to seven square miles. Nevertheless, these causes would not, perhaps, be sufficient, if we could apply a general rule which we have pointed out in treating of the theory of climates.* We must consider the mass of air superincumbent on a continent as a whole, the general modification of which depends on all the partial modifications. If a continent extend far into the torrid zone, the mass of warm air re-acts upon the temperate mass, and communicates to it a part of its caloric, and, by dilating, forces it towards the north, and thus confines the limits of the cold. So that

* Vol. I. p. 406, 407.

the countries toward the poles do not simply become cold, in the direct ratio of their latitudes. This increase of cold also observes an inverse ratio to the extent of heated land contiguous to them on the south. Such is the reason why the neighbourhood of the immense mass of heated surface in Africa renders the temperature of Arabia, of Syria, and of Mesopotamia, hotter than it should otherwise be. In the winter season, the cold of North America is very piercing in the environs of the tropic. That part of this continent which extends to the south of the tropic of Cancer, is nothing in comparison with the remainder. Hence, there is no mass of warm air to re-act on the temperate and cold, so that the action of the cold mass receives no counterbalance. If we examine the map of Asia, we shall see the form of that continent contracting in breadth from China to Behring's Straits, at which part the climate is no longer warm. The air in these countries, naturally cold, is rendered still more so by the influence of the frozen sea: the great Pacific Ocean is not adequate to counterbalance its effects, being itself cooled by a great number of icebergs which enter it through Behring's Strait. These icebergs are often stopped between the Aleutian Islands and Andrinow, and occasion the cold fogs with which this part of the sea is covered. They are afterwards carried by the general current of the ocean from east to west, that is, from America to Asia, where they accumulate in the gulfs.

Influence of the climate upon the character of the people.

This unchangeableness of physical circumstances—these climates which no industry can sensibly ameliorate—these regular returns of the seasons—that certain repetition of the same mode of cultivation, and consequently of the same mode of living, must have an influence on the moral character of the Asiatics, as well in uniformly modifying their nervous and muscular system, as in exciting their imagination by the return of the same sensations. It contributes to render the wandering Tartar as invariable in his inclination for pastoral life as the Indian is in his servile

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indolence, and the Chinese in his indefatigable industry. Still we must not attribute to that cause alone the immutability of character which we observe amongst the Asiatic nations. Hippocrates, who had but a partial view of the physical facts, is cautious of attributing to them an exclusive influence.

Opinion of Hippocrates upon the Asiatics.

"If the people of Asia,"* says he, "are without courage, without energy, of a milder and less warlike character than the Europeans, it is in a great measure owing to the equality of the climate. The difference of heat and cold is not known there, the two temperatures unite one with another. The mind does not feel those sudden shocks, nor the body those quick changes, which give vigour, and even impetuosity to the character. "But," adds he, "another reason of the inactivity of the Asiatics is the nature of their political laws; they are for the most part governed by absolute monarchs, and whenever a man is not master of his own person, and does not participate in the legislative power, but is subjected to the sway of despots, he does not wish to pass for a brave man, because he knows that it would expose him to the greatest dangers. The subjects are obliged to go to war, to support all the inconveniences of it, and to shed their blood even far from their children, wives, and friends. All their exploits only tend to augment the power of their despots; dangers and death are the only rewards they obtain for their bravery. Besides which, they are compelled to see their property converted into deserts, either by the devastation of war, or the want of cultivation, so that, if there are found among them some courageous minds, they are prevented from the use of their energies by the nature of their political institutions. A proof of what I advance is, that those amongst the Asiatics who enjoy some political liberty, and who consequently labour for themselves, are comparatively warlike."

Errors of the commentators of Hippocrates.

If Hippocrates thought himself obliged to make some exception in regard to the few Asiatic countries and nations that

* Hippoc. de Aerib. aquis, et locis, § 85—88, edition of M. Coray.

were known in his time, and amongst whom, the Sarmatæ, in the plains to the north of Caucasus, were the most northerly, as the Indians of the Penjab were the most easterly, what would he do now, when our geographical knowledge is so much more extensive? It would require all the enthusiasm of a physician or of a Hellenist, ignorant of the state of physical geography, to believe that Hippocrates has foretold the moral influence of the climate of Siberia, of Thibet, or China, of the very existence of which he was totally ignorant. How could Hippocrates have asserted, that the innumerable tribes of Tartars and Mongols, were less warlike than the Europeans? In fact, the countries which this great writer includes under the name of *Asia* differ almost entirely from those which now form that part of the world; he comprises in Europe the *Sarmatæ*, although they dwell beyond the Tanais;* he expressly places the *Egyptians* and *Lybians* in Asia.† It is then evident, that he understands by *Asia*, the southern and eastern parts of the world then known, and applies the name of Europe to the other half, *i. e.* the western and northern. Hippocrates, like Homer and many other ancients, distinguishes only *two* parts of the world; and he opposes the one as constantly to the other, as heat to cold, or dryness to moisture. Considering the matter in this point of view, we understand Hippocrates without difficulty, and we see the meaning of his assertion, that Asia in general enjoys a milder climate than Europe, and that all its productions are finer and larger.‡ We at once also perceive how vague and arbitrary the applications must have been which physiologists have made of a work of which they misconceived the most essential terms subservient to medical topography. We must not, therefore, assert that the Asiatics, without discrimination, are an effeminate and voluptuous people; but that such is the character of some nations of southern Asia; and from that number we must exclude the wandering Arab, the frugal Drusian, the energetic Berman, the ferocious Malay, and the unsubdued tribes of Mahrattas.

True meaning of the words Europe and Asia in Hippocrates.

Courage of some Asiatics.

* De Aer. aquis, et locis. § 89. † Ibid, § 76. ‡ Ibid, § 72, 73.

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Real influence of physical geography.

We shall allow, however, that the people of Asia owe to geographical circumstances some political and moral features very different from those which exist in Europe. A wandering and patriarchal life is clearly pointed out by nature to many Asiatic nations. The unlimited power of the father of a family becomes necessarily a pattern for monarchical authority. The want of great towns peopled by an industrious class of citizens prevents these nations from possessing any idea of a social compact or political liberty; in some other parts of Asia, the uniform fertility of the soil, and the constant mildness of the climate, in recompensing too rapidly the most trifling labour, have stifled almost in its birth the energy of the human mind, which requires to be stimulated by want and obstacles. Both these modes of living are productive of a mental and bodily inactivity, which becomes hereditary, and appears to stamp the Asiatic race with a general inferiority in energy and courage. This mental torpor subsisting in combination with some virtuous, mild, and hospitable feelings, keeps alive also the empire of

Religion.

religious superstition, under the yoke of which we find all the eastern and central parts of Asia languishing; whilst the Christianity of the Greek church slowly penetrates by the north, and Mahometanism still flourishes in the western regions. Polygamy, supported by the same spirit of routine throughout Asia, with the single exception of Japan, debases family connections, and deprives life of its endearments, by taking from the female all consideration and influence; at the same time, being adverse to the laws of nature,* it diminishes population, and deteriorates the human race.

This immobility of character is not a phenomenon peculiar to Asia. Whenever nature is more powerful than industry, whether for good or for bad, man receives from the climate an invariable and irresistible impulse. Have the shepherd of the Alps, the fisherman of the Archipelago, the wandering Laplander, and the cultivator of Sicily, changed their character? The only difference is that in Asia, where

* Compare Vol. I. p. 557. and 563.

the nations are exhibited on a larger scale, the phenomena of civilization and barbarism strike us with greater force.

Great empires why common in Asia.

The very same circumstance assists in explaining why great and extensive empires are more common in Asia than in Europe. It is not enough to say that the great plains with which Asia abounds, give the conquerors an easier access. This only holds good in the central parts; but how many inaccessible mountains, how many large rivers, and immense deserts form the natural bulwarks, and eternal barriers of other Asiatic nations! When once an Asiatic nation profits by its local circumstances, it is as difficult to be conquered as any European people. The Druses, the Kurdes, and the Mahrattas, are not the only examples; we can quote one still more illustrious. The chain of mountains of Assyria to the north-east of Babylon, which Alexander had no difficulty in passing, became a bulwark for the empire of the Parthians, before which the legions of Trajan himself were routed. The great conquests in Asia have arisen from another cause, and that is, the great extension of the same nations. The capitals of Hindostan, of China, or of Persia being given up to one conqueror, the immense multitude of tribes connected by speaking the same language, mechanically submit to the same yoke. These great empires once established, the succession of one to another becomes almost perpetual, from reasons purely moral and political. The nations of Asia, too numerous and too disseminated, do not feel the ardour and energy of true patriotism; they furnish their chiefs with troops, but without zeal or energy, and they change their masters without regret, or much struggle. The Asiatic sovereigns, shut up in their seraglios, oppose only a vain shew of resistance to the audacity of the conquerors, while the latter are scarcely seated on the throne before they give way to the same effeminacy which procured the downfall of their predecessors. The organization of the armies, which are composed chiefly of cavalry, and the want of strong places, open the road to sudden and rapid invasions. Every thing combines to facilitate the total and frequent subjugation of those vast empires of the east.

Political description of the empires of Asia.

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But this state of things is so little founded upon the physical geography of Asia, that we now see India divided into more than 100 sovereignties; Persia in part dismembered, and Turkey in Asia ready to fall in pieces. Ancient history informs us that all the regions of Asia were originally divided into numerous small kingdoms, in which the will of the monarch found limits in the rights of the nation. Asia has seen several republics. The resistance which Tyre and Jerusalem opposed to the conquerors of the world, was not owing, as Montesquieu* says, "to the "heroism of servitude." The Persians of Cyrus were not slaves. The Scythians spoke the language of independent men to the conqueror of Darius.

This state is not founded on geographical causes.

The astonishing rapidity of political revolutions in Asia arises, however, out of one fact which is really dependent on its physical geography. "In that part of the world," says Montesquieu,† "weak nations are opposed to strong; people warlike, brave, and active, border upon those who are effeminate, idle, and timid; the one must necessarily be conquerors, and the others conquered. Here we have the principal reason of the liberty of Europe, and the slavery of Asia." It is necessary to combine this just remark with another truth, proved by physical geography, namely, that Asia has no temperate zone, no intermediate region between very cold and very hot climates. The slaves inhabit the hot, and the conquerors the elevated and cold regions. The latter are the Tartars, the Afghans, the Mongols, the Mantchous, and others, comprised under the name of Tartars by the moderns, and Scythians of Asia by the ancients. Here we find a totally different physical and moral nature; courage animates their strong and powerful bodies, good natural sense is attached to their grosser fibres; they have no sciences, no fine arts, no luxury; their savage virtues are unpolished, morality is deeply engraven in the heart; hospitality to strangers, honour to

Contrast of nations in Asia.

* Spirit of Laws.

† Spirit of Laws. Book xvii. chap. 3.

an enemy, and a fidelity wholly inviolable, to their own nation and friends. To counterbalance these good qualities, they are addicted to war, or rather to pillage, and a wandering life, and live almost in a state of anarchy. Such were the Scythians; such are the Tartars. They defied the power of Darius; they gave a great and sublime lesson to Alexander the Great; they heard from a distance the victorious arms of Rome, but they did not feel their pressure. More than twenty times they conquered Asia, and eastern Europe; they founded states in Persia, in India, in China, and in Russia. The empires of Tamerlane, and of Gengis-kan, embraced the half of the ancient continent. That vast nursery of nations appears to be now exhausted; few of the Tartars remain nominally independent; but they are still the masters of China, and rather the allies and vassals, than the subjects of Russia.

Limits of the cold and hot zones.

We must now notice the limits of the two zones into which Asia is divided in regard to their climate and productions. If we draw a line from Mingrelia, along Caucasus, round the Caspian sea, along the mountains which form part of the limit of Persia, towards Cashemire, across Thibet, then turning to the north-east, through the northern parts, pass on to the north of Corea, we shall have nearly traced the limit between the hot and cold climates of Asia. Of course, the frontiers of each of the zones will sometimes be confounded; and upon the frontiers also, there will be climates similar to those of Europe, particularly in western Asia. Generally speaking, however, this line will point out the rapid transition from the hot to the cold.

Diversity of food.

Rice and maize are the food of the southern nations; millet and barley of the inhabitants of the cold zone; and on the borders of each we find countries of corn. Nature produces in the southern regions delicious fruits, and in some parts the strongest and most pungent aromatics; but the northern countries are deprived even of the productions of the orchards of northern Europe. The region inhabited by the rein-deer marks, in the north and north-east,* the vast

* See Vol. I. Book XXI. Zoological geography.

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space which is, and which will long be inaccessible to all cultivation. The Tartars, the Mongols, and half the Persians, owe their taste for riding, robbery, and war, to the great number of horses which they possess. In all the west, the camel is made use of for commercial and social communication; the elephant is useful in agriculture, in ancient times he was formidable in war, and had great influence on the ancient civilization of India. China, deprived in a great measure of the assistance of these different animals, has supplied the deficiency by the quantity of boats with which its rivers are covered.

Animals.

Differences of dwellings.

The want of wood for building has obliged the inhabitants of the central plateau, and of the north of Asia, to lodge in tents covered with skins or stuffs, both of which are the produce of their herds. A similar necessity has produced the same result in Arabia. On the contrary, in India and other countries, rich in wood, but particularly in the palm, small and slight houses were suitable to the indolence of the natives, as well as to the mildness of the climate. As both these kinds of habitations offer nothing firm and solid, the towns of Asia disappear like the empires of which they are the momentary centres. This general character of the Asiatic houses, necessarily excludes the taste for valuable furniture, pictures, and statues, so that the fine arts can never make any progress. On the other hand, the uniform influence of a climate, which imperiously determines the sorts of cultivation and food for each region, and the irresistible influence of religious superstitions, despotic laws, and servile morals, banishes from the soul of the Asiatic those animated and free emotions which in Europe inspire the breast that possesses a relish for literature and the sciences: thus the different regions of Asia afford, in almost every part, some remains of a civilization upon which the physical advantages and disadvantages impress an irrevocable character; but in every part also, this civilization is only in a very inferior degree, in comparison with that which the people of modern Europe have attained.

We shall now describe, in the order of its great natural divisions, that vast portion of the world of which we have given a general outline. BOOK XXIV.

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF ASIA.

I. Region of Caucasus . . .	Government of Caucasus; Abassia; Circassia; Georgia, &c. Daghestan; Shirwan.
II. Region of Asia Minor . .	Anatolia; Caramania; Sivas; Trebisond; Islands of Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.
III. Region of the Euphrates and Tigris	Armenia; Kurdistan; Mesopotamia, or Al-Djesira; Babylonia, or Irac-Araby.
IV. Region of Mount Libanus	Syria with Palestine.
V. Region of Arabia . . .	Arabia.
VI. Region of Persia . . .	Persia.
VII. Region of the Oxus and of Lake Aral	Great Bucharia; West Turkestan; The Steppe of Kirguis; Turcomania, or the country of Truchmenes.
VIII. Region of the great central Plain	Kalmuk Tartary. Mongol Tartary; Little Bucharia.
IX. Region of the Obi, and Yenissei	Western Siberia.
X. Region of the North East .	Eastern Siberia, with Kamtchatka.
XI. Region of the river Amoor	Chinese Tartary, with Corea.
XII. Insular region of the East	Kurile Islands, Tchoka and Jesso. Islands of Japan, Loo-Choo, Formosa.
XIII. Region of the Blue River and of the Yellow River	China Proper.
XIV. Region of the sources of the Ganges	Thibet.
XV. Region of the Ganges .	Eastern Hindostan.
XVI. Region of the Indus . .	Western Hindostan.

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	XVII. Region of the Deccan .	Peninsula of India, on the west of the Ganges, with Ceylon and the Maldivian Islands.
	XVIII. Region of Chinese India	Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges; Birman empire; Siam; Cochin China; Malacca.

In this plan of division adopted for the present and succeeding volume, we have sought the most luminous and agreeable method of studying the topography of Asia, and connecting the particular descriptions. This is the reason why we have not been very scientifically strict, and have often classed in one groupe countries which have little interest, or are little known.

BOOK XXV.

CAUCASIAN COUNTRIES.

Georgia, Abassia, Circassia, Plains of Kuban, Daghestân, and Shirwan.

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The regions bounded by the Caspian Sea on the east, on the south by the rivers Kur and Rione, or Phasis, on the west by the Black Sea and the Palus Meotis, or Sea of Azof, and on the north by the rivers Manitsch and Bonna, form a kind of isthmus which connects Europe with Western Asia, and across which Mount Caucasus extends like an immense wall.

Definition of the Circassian isthmus.

The breadth of this isthmus, according to the best Russian authorities,* is about 400 miles, between the mouths of the Don and the Kooma; about 756 between the straits of Caffa and the peninsula of Absheron; and about 950 between the mouths of the Phasis and the city of Derbend.

Etymology of the name of Caucasus.

The etymology of the name of Caucasus, so celebrated in history and poetry, is not agreed upon; the most probable opinion is, that it is a compound of a Persian word *Caw*, signifying "a mountain," and a Scythian word *Cas-pi*, that is "a white mountain." This opinion is supported by a passage of Erastosthenes, where he informs us that the natives of Caucasus called it Caspios;† but Pliny says that the native name was Graucasus, which may be considered

* Map of Caucasus by Lapie. Annales des Voyages, Vol. XII.

† Rommel, Caucasi Straboniana Descriptio, p. 62.

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as Gothic.* The Caucasian nations seem at present to have no general denomination.†

The ancients compared Caucasus to the Alps in point of elevation. They have indeed some just resemblance, for the middle of the chain is covered with glaciers, or white with eternal snows.‡ Reineggs considers the Elboors, which is the highest summit of Caucasus, as only 5900 feet above the level of the Black Sea.

Elevation.

On the south Caucasus joins the numerous chains of Mount Taurus, which extend through Western Asia; to the north it borders almost upon the vast plains where the Sarmates once wandered, and where the Cossacks and Kalmuks now roam; towards the east, its rugged precipices bound the narrow plain which separates it from the Caspian Sea;§ on the west, the high chain terminates abruptly towards Mingrelia by rugged mountains, called the *Montes Ceraunii* by the ancients. The inferior chains then stretch along the coast of the Black Sea, and form the low mountains which separate the Circassians from the Abassians, and which the ancients call *Montes Coraxici*. Amongst the summits of Caucasus we distinguish the Elboors, or rather *Albordj*,‖ in the country of the Ossetes and the *Bishbarmak*, or Five-fingered Mountain, in Lesghistan. There is a promontory which runs into the country of the Circassians, so rich in fine horses, which was called among the ancients *Montes Hippici*. Its name among the moderns is *Beesch Tau*.

Chains and branches.

The two principal passages of Mount Caucasus are mentioned by the ancients under the name of the Caucasian and Albanian gates. The first is the defile which

Passes of Caucasus.

* Pliny, VI. 17.

† Compare Busching, Description of Caucasus, in his Nouvelles Hebdomadaires, 1781, p. 381. Wahl, Asien, I. 793, &c. Wilford, Asiatic Researches, VI. 455, *sqq*.

‡ Guldenstedt, Voyages, I. 434, (in German.) Reineggs, Description of Caucasus, &c. I. 16, (in German.) Compare Procop. Bell. Goth. IV. c. 3.

§ Gmelin, Travels III. 34, 35.

‖ From Bordj, or Borg, a Persian word signifying a mountain. (Wahl.)

leads from Mosdok to Tiflis. It is the narrow valley of four days journey, where, according to Strabo, the river Aragon, now called Arakui, flows.* It is, as Pliny calls it, an enormous work of nature, who has cut out a long opening among the rocks, which an iron gate would be almost sufficient to close.† It is by this passage, according to Piscus, that the barbarians of the north threatened both the Roman and the Persian empire.‡ The ancients gave different names to the strong castle which commands this passage. It is now called Dariel. The Albanian passes of the ancients were, according to common opinion, the pass of Derbend, along the Caspian Sea. But, if we compare with care all the records which the ancients have left us; if we reflect that in no descriptions of this pass is the Caspian Sea mentioned; if we remember that Ptolemy expressly placed the gates on the entrances of Albania, near the sources of the river *Kasius*, which, according to the whole tenor of his geography must be the modern Koisu; that the same geographer makes the *Diduri* neighbours to the *Tusci*, near the Sarmatian passes, and that these two tribes, under the names of Didos and Tushes, still dwell near a defile passing through the territory of Ooma-Khan, along the frontier of Daghestan, and then traversing the district of Kagmamsharie,§ we shall conclude that to be the place where we must look for the Albanian or Sarmatian passes, which have hitherto been misunderstood. The name of the Caspian pass belonging properly to a defile near Teheran, in ancient Media, is vaguely applied by Tacitus and some other ancient writers, to different passes of Mount Caucasus. But we must distinguish from all these passes which traverse the chain from south to north, the Iberian passes, or the defile of Parapaux, now called Shaoorapo, by which they pass from Imeritia into Kartalinia, a defile in which, according to Strabo, there

Albanian or Sarmatian passes.

Caspian and Iberian passes.

* Strabo, XI. 765. † Pliny, VI. 11.

‡ Prisc. de Legation, p. 43. Comp. Procop. Pers I. 20.

§ Lapie, Map of Caucasus. Annales des Voyages, XII.

BOOK XXV. were precipices and deep abysses, but which in the 4th century the Persians rendered practicable for armies.*

Wall of Caucasus.

A tradition very generally prevalent among the natives of these countries is, that a great wall had in former times protected Caucasus from the invasions of the barbarians. This great work is sometimes attributed to Alexander, and sometimes to Nonchyrvan; the remains of a wall may be seen, but it is very uncertain whether these belong to a wall which traversed all the isthmus, or rather made a part of some local fortifications.†

Mines.

Both the ancients and moderns agree that the Caucasian countries possess mines of gold, silver, and iron. Several rivers carry down gold dust mixed with the sand, which, being stopped by sheep skins placed on purpose, furnishes an explanation of the fable of the golden fleece.‡

Rocks.

The summits of Caucasus are formed of granite. On each side the granite has schistous mountains joining it, and these are followed by calcareous. The chain is said to present a great regularity, and its direction in a strait line renders the assertion probable. But the calcareous mountains appear to occupy more space on the southern side, where the chain is extended by a greater number of branches. On the northern side, the base both of the calcareous and schistous mountains is covered by vast sandy downs or plains which disappear by degrees in the barren plain called the Steppe of Kooma.

Caucasus is one of the most interesting regions of the globe, both for its natural and its civil history. We find here every climate of Europe, and every kind of soil. In the centre, we have eternal ice and barren rocks, inhabited by

* Procop. Bell. Goth. p. 600. Guildenstedt, I. 314.

† Bayer, de Muro. Caucas. Reineggs, I. 120. Guildenstedt, 1. 489.

‡ Strabo, XI. passim. Pliny, XXXIII. 3. Plutarch in Pomp. Appian. de bello Mithrid. p. 797. Procop. Bell. Persic. p. 45. Tavernier, Vol. I. book 3. p. 295. Lamberti, Relaz. della Colchide, p. 193. Gmelin, III. p. 51. Peyssonel, Traité du Commerce, &c. II. p. 80. Guldenstedt, I. p. 286, 418, 462, particularly p. 428. Reineggs, I. p. 21, 25, 189, &c. II. p. 92, 138, &c.

bears and wolves, also by jackals,* *chaus*, (an animal of the genus *Felis*,†) the wild goat of the Caucasus, (Capra Caucasica,‡) which delights in the rugged summits of the schistous mountains; the chamois, which, on the contrary, prefers the lower calcareous mountains; hares, weasels, polecats, ermines, argalis, and an infinite number of birds of prey, and of passage. To the north are hills fertile in corn, and rich pastures where the fine Circassian horses are bred. Farther on are sandy plains, covered with large plants, but mixed with low grounds of a more clayey soil. To the south you find magnificent valleys and plains, under a more salubrious climate, displaying all the luxuriance of an Asiatic vegetation. Wherever the declivity inclines towards the west, the east, or the south, cedars, cypresses, savins, red junipers, beech trees, and oaks, clothe the sides of the mountains.§ The almond, the peach, and the fig, grow in abundance in the warmer valleys, sheltered by the rocks. The quince, the wild apricot, the willow-leaved pear tree, and the vine, abound in the thickets and woods, and on the borders of the forests. The date-tree, the jujuba, and Christ's thorn, are indigenous in this country, and prove the mildness of the temperature. The low marshy grounds are adorned with very fine plants, such as the *rhododendron ponticum*, and the *azalea pontica*. The cultivated and wild olive trees, the oriental plane, together with the male and female laurels, embellish the coasts of the Caspian sea. The high valleys are perfumed by the syringa, the jessamine, several species of lilies, and the Caucasian rose.

Animals.

Vegetables.

The Caucasian isthmus contains an extraordinary number of small nations. Some are the remains of Asiatic hordes which, in the great migrations, passed and repassed these mountains; but the greater number are composed of indigenous and primitive tribes.

* Guldenstedt, Novi comment. Petrop. vol. XX. p. 49, et infra.

† Guldenstedt, p. 483.

‡ Pallas. Comment. Petropol. 1779, Part II. p. 274.

§ Guldenstedt, I. 435, &c.

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Each of these tribes preserves its particular language, the idioms of which might probably be traced back to the very earliest period. The Caucasian physiognomy combines the characteristic features of the principal races of Europe, and of Western Asia. The domestic animals, and cultivated plants of these two parts of the world are found in Caucasus, or in its environs. The writings of Moses, the allegory of Prometheus among the Greeks, the famous expedition of the Argonauts, and several traditions of the Scandinavians, all combine to make us consider this country as one of the points from whence the human race extended itself over a great part of the globe. But these questions are beyond the limits of this work. We shall class the Caucasian nations under seven great divisions, corresponding to the seven principal languages which they speak, namely,

Classification of the nations of Caucasus.

I. The Georgians, subdivided into
  - [a] Georgians, properly so called.
  - [b] Imeritians.
  - [c] Gurians.
  - [d] Mingrelians.
  - [e] Suanes.

II. The Abassians, subdivided into several tribes.

III. The Tcherkesses, or Circassians . . . . .
  - [a] Circassians of Kuban.
  - [b] Circassians of Kabardia.

IV. The Ossites, divided into different tribes.

V. The Kistes, or Tchetchenzes, with the Ingooshes and other tribes.

VI. The Lesghians, divided according to their eight dialects.

VII. The remains of the Tatars, Mongols, Huns, and other foreign colonies scattered over this country.

Georgia.

Georgia, properly so called, demands our first attention, being situated in the centre of the isthmus. The Russians call this country *Grusia*, and the Persians *Gurgistan*; but the native writers* comprehend the four kingdoms of Kartueli, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and Guria, under

* Eugene, archimandrite, Description of Georgia, in the Annales des Voyages, XII. 74.

the general name of *Iberia* or *Iweria*. It appears that their classical denomination is unknown to the greater part of the inhabitants. According to some modern authors, the name of Georgians comes from that of the great river *Kur*, (Kor, Kyros, or Cyrus) which waters this fine country, and they ought rather to be named *Korgians*, or *Kurgians*. BOOK XXV.

The divisions which took place in the middle age between the princes of Iberia gave rise to three kingdoms, that of Imeritia, from which Mingrelia and Guria were afterwards separated, and those of Kartalinia, or Kartuel, and of Kachetia. Principal divisions.

Imeritia has sometimes been known under the name of Turkish Georgia, and the remainder has been called Persian Georgia. It is to this latter portion that recent authors, particularly the Russians, confine the name of Georgia. This country is subdivided into five provinces, namely, upper Karduel, middle Karduel, lower Karduel, Kacheti and Somachet. Heraclius, a valiant prince, formed about 30 years ago, an independent state, which now, under the name of *Grusia*, is incorporated with the Russian empire.

The *Kur*, which waters the great valley of Georgia, is increased by the Aragui, the Iora, probably the *Iberus* of the ancients, and the Alasan, which is their *Alazo*. When it reaches the plains of Shirvan, its waters are mixed with those of the Aras, or Araxes; the two rivers form several branches, sometimes united, and sometimes separated, so that it appears uncertain, as it was in the time of Strabo and Ptolemy, whether their mouths were to be considered as separate, or if the Kur was supposed to receive the Aras. Rivers.

Georgia enjoys a very mild temperature, and in general is very healthy. It presents an agreeable variety of mountains, forests, and plains. All the common productions of the Caucasian countries abound in it; but the inhabitants are not numerous, and neglect the gifts of nature. In the dry season, which generally commences in the month of May and ends in November, the people of Georgia Productions. Cultivation.

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are occupied in watering a soil which yields them, without much labour, the most delightful fruits.

They cultivate wheat, *gom*, or *Holcus Bicolor*, and millet. Peaches, apricots, almonds, quinces, cherries, figs, and pomegranates, flourish with very little care. The vines are abundant, and of a good quality, and the wine that is made from them is sent to Persia. That of *Kzcheti* does not keep well, because it is badly made, but it is strong, and sparkles in the glass. Apples, madder, and cotton, are cultivated with care; they boast of their management of bees; their horses and horned cattle equal the best European breeds in size and beauty; and the sheep with long tails afford excellent wool.* The finest oaks and firs are suffered to rot without being applied to any use.†

The Georgians, their language, origin, &c.

The Georgians, or rather the Iberians, a native people of Caucasus, speak a language radically different from all other known languages, and in which, in the twelfth century, a great many historical and poetical works were composed.‡ They imagine, however, that they are descended from a common stock with the Armenians. They are in general handsome, well made, and active; nor are they deficient in natural understanding, but selfish, and addicted to drinking. They have adopted in some degree the Persian costume, because their nobles were often brought up at the Persian court, and the people served as guards to the sovereigns of that country. The Georgians are rarely without their arms; even in the fields they carry by their sides guns and daggers, to be in readiness against the robbers of the neighbouring mountains.

Commerce.

The wretched state to which wars and revolutions have reduced this fine country has prevented the natives, notwithstanding their taste for commerce and travelling, from having any very considerable trade. The Armenians act as

* Guldenstedt, I. 353, 361, 369, &c. Reineggs, II. 109, 120.

† Reineggs, II. 45, &c.

‡ Eugene, Annales des Voyages, XII. p. 86, 90.

their agents. Their women, whose beauty is not less celebrated than that of the Circassians although their skin is not so white nor their figure so graceful, have imbibed a spirit of licentiousness and of corruption from their frequent intercourse with strangers. The girls sold as slaves become victims of their beauty. A great many Georgians inhabit huts that are half sunk in the earth. In Racheti, a province whose civilization has made more progress, we find a kind of house formed of a slight wooden frame, walls made of bundles of osiers covered over with a mixture of clay and cow-dung, and surmounted by a roof of rush. A room thirty feet long and twenty broad, where the light comes in at the door; a floor upon which they dry madder and cotton: a little hole in the middle of the apartment, where the fire is placed, and above it a copper cauldron attached to a chain, and enveloped with a thick smoke, which escapes either by the ceiling or the door: This is the general structure of these houses. We find in almost all the villages, towers which, at the approach of the hordes of Lesghians, serve as an asylum to the women and children. Dwellings.

Teflis, or *Tibilisi*, the capital of all the country, generally reckons about 20,000 inhabitants; there are twenty Georgian churches, fifteen Armenian, one Catholic, and a Persian mosque. They are very little engaged in manufactures, and those of the most simple kind. At *Mzcheti*, the ancient residence of the Kings, there is a very handsome cathedral, founded about nine centuries ago. The town of *Tshinval* is peopled with Jews; that of *Geri* with Armenians. Towns.

The population of Georgia may be computed at 900,000 individuals, two thirds of whom are indigenous, and attached to the Grecian ritual. The Armenians and Jews are very numerous.

Before the royal family, whom some writers assert to be descended from a Jew called Bagrat, and others from a Persian nobleman named Pharnabazes, had yielded up its rights to Russia, Georgia was a feudal monarchy, Constitution and civil state.

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which several excellent princes in vain endeavoured to consolidate and improve. The princes and the nobles formed two distinct classes. The first paid no contributions, but during war they were obliged to follow the king with their vassals. The lawsuits which were carried on between them were judged by the king. The nobles paid certain taxes to the king and to the princes. Although they dwelt in thatched cottages, their pride was equal to their poverty and their ignorance.* The people lived in the most abject slavery; they were sold, given, and put in pawn, like domestic animals.† All who were capable of bearing arms were soldiers; each nobleman commanded his respective vassals; but the king named the commander in chief. The revenues of the sovereigns consisted in the fifth part of all the productions of the vineyards, fields and gardens; also the duties upon all exports and imports, as well as the produce of the mines, which were but slightly worked.‡ This country is now a province of Russia.

The Imeritians.

The Imeritians, whose name is derived from that of the Iberians, join the Georgians on the north-west, and speak the Georgian dialect. Their dress consists of little caps, peculiar to them; long hair; a shaved chin, mustachios very much drawn up; clothes scarcely reaching the knees, and forming a great many folds upon the haunches; ribands rolled round the calves of their legs; and large girdles. From twenty to twenty-five thousand families live under the authority of a hereditary czar, who has often acknowledged himself the vassal of Russia. The Imeritians live along the sides of rivers and in woods. On account of its elevated situation, the country remains for a long time covered with snow. The valleys are marshy. The care of cattle, of bees, and of silk-worms, is here carried to a greater degree of perfection than in all the other countries of Caucasus. A single vine supplies a

Productions of Imeritia.

* Reineggs, II. 53, 123. † Guldenstedt, I. 351, 354.
‡ Ibid. I. 351, 356.

whole family with wine.* The indolence of the inhabitants allows the rich gifts of the soil and climate to perish in a most useless manner. It was here that in old times, the Rione or Phasis had 120 bridges over it, and where there was a continual transfer of merchandize, that united in some measure this river to the Cyrus, and consequently the Caspian to the Black Sea; it is now crossed only in small boats of the hollowed trunks of trees. We still see the ruins of Sarapana, now called Schoraban, and the town of Cotatis, or Kutais, probably the ancient Cytæa, near which the czar resides in a kind of camp. The trifling commerce of the Imeritians is generally confined to two places, situated upon the Rione at Oni, and at Choni; grain, horses, and copper utensils, are exchanged for cloths and stuffs. At Zadis, towards the eastern side, the hematites is found from whence iron is extracted, of which different utensils are made.

Towns.

Towards the north, is situated Radsha, the principal district, which can raise about 5000 soldiers. The villages of the plain are of great extent; in those of the mountaineers, the houses are built close on one another. Those of the first people are made of hurdles of osiers, those of others are of boards.

The *Gurians* inhabit the country situated on the borders of the Black Sea, to the south of the Phasis. Ruined by the neighbouring pashâs, they pay no attention to navigation or fishing; and do not profit by any of the numerous advantages which are offered them by nature. Guria enjoys a healthy temperature, a soil suitable to agriculture and to the breeding of cattle, and a climate in which lemons, olives, and oranges flourish. Of all the environs of Caucasus, it is only here that these fruits ripen. This people, as well as their language, have received mixtures from other nations; and besides the Turks, whom their prince, called the *Guriel*, is obliged to respect, there are also to be met with Tartars, Armenians, and Jews.

The Gurians.

* Reineggs, II. 47, 50. Guldenstedt, *passim*.

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The Lazians.

On the coast of the Black Sea, below the Gurians, are the Laziana, which signifies in the Turkish language, people belonging to the sea; it is probable that these are the remainder of the ancient *Lazi*, who, in the time of the Byzantines, were established in Colchis.

The Mingrelians.

Theirmanners.

The *Mingrelians* dwell beyond the Gurians, and by the side of the Imeritians, in the same country which the Colchians once possessed, and afterwards the ancient Laziens. Ancient cities in ruins, Turkish or Russian fortresses upon the border of the sea, vessels loaded with slaves which sail for Turkey, princes and nobles who pillage wherever they go, women who betray their husbands, contests between all the villages, and frequent irruptions of foreign armies—now form the picture of Mingrelia. The costume of these people consists of a cap of felt, their feet either bare or enveloped in skins, which afford poor protection against the mud of this damp country, with their shirts and clothes extremely dirty: Such is the appearance of the men, surrounded by women who lead a life of debauchery, often eat with their fingers, and bring up their children to lying, pillage, and marauding. The following is the manner in which a Mingrelian nobleman procures slaves. During a sudden attack, or a precipitate retreat, he watches one of the enemy whom he can dismount, and whom he can in this manner make his prisoner, and with a cord attached to his girdle, he binds the prisoner as soon as he has got him off his horse. The sale of slaves also takes place during peace; for in Mingrelia the master sells his servant, the father his son, the brother his sister.

Slaves.

Commerce.

Besides slaves, the Turks go to Mingrelia to purchase silk, calico, furs, and particularly the skins of the beavers; and also red and white honey. They give in exchange sabres, bows and arrows, ornaments for the horses, cloths, coverlids, and even copper and iron; for the ancient possessors of the golden fleece do not at present work any mine. Near Iskuriah, or Isgaour, the ancient *Dioscurias*, on the north side of the country, and towards the frontiers of the

province of Odishé, is the principal mart for trade. Turkish money passes there. The port of *Anarghia*, situated lower, and where Mingrelia properly so called commences, is also the resort of great commerce.* BOOK XXV.

Principal port.

Mingrelia is still as damp, hot, and subject to fevers as when Hippocrates described it under the name of Colchis. In summer there are pestilential diseases, which are destructive both to men and animals. Vegetation is very rapid, and all the fruits are produced without the care of grafting; but it must be allowed that their flavour is not always the finest. Chesnut and fig-trees are in abundance.† The wine alone can be praised, which is wholesome and full of spirit. There is also rice, millet, and *gom*. The Mingrelians do not now cultivate flax,‡ which, in the time of Herodotus and of Strabo, furnished the Colchians with the means of an important manufacture, of which Chardin observed some remains. The only object to which they appear to give any attention is the management of bees. The honey of some cantons, where the *Azalea pontica* abounds, is bitter,§ as was observed by Strabo. It was beyond the Phasis, in *Guria*, that Xenophon found a kind of honey which caused a species of delirium in those who eat of it, an effect which Pliny attributes to the rhododendron, a shrub which abounds in the forests where the bees swarm.‖ Climate and vegetables of Mingrelia.

The Mingrelians are very superstitious: the missionaries of the 17th century were unable to suppress a *fête* which was celebrated in honour of an ox, and which reminds us of the worship of Apis. The prince of Mingrelia assumes the title of *Dadian*, or master of the sea, though he possesses not even a fishing boat: he generally moves about with his suite from place to place, and his camp is the scene of licentiousness as well as poverty.¶ The noblemen of Mingrelia are addicted to the chace, and they are acquainted Superstitious customs.

* Friebe, Trade of Russia, I. 128, *sqq.* (in German.)

† Reineggs, II. 29, *sqq.* Guldenstedt, I. 400, 408.

‡ Ibid. II. 50.

§ Guldenstedt, I. 275, 281, 297, *sqq.*

‖ Xénophon, Cyri exped. IV. 8. Pliny, XXX. 13.

¶ Felix Lagorio, Letters upon Mingrelia, Annales des Voyages, IX.

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with the art of training birds of prey, which they make use of to kill the game. According to a Mingrelian proverb, a good horse, a good dog, and a good falcon, are three indispensable things for human happiness. The chace furnishes the Mingrelian with abundance of venison. In their repasts, they also eat pheasants, with which the country near the Phasis abounds. The Mahometans are in great numbers in Mingrelia; they regard with great indignation the quantity of wine and pork which are produced, while they are unable to procure good bread. From the east of Odishé and Mingrelia, is situated the small Mingrelian province of Leshkum, where the inhabitants live in huts of stone.

Suanes.

A large ravine, which extends from south to north, separates the last-mentioned country from that of the *Suanes*, a people who live near the Elboors, the last summit of the Caucasus. The Suanes, whose name is derived from a word signifying in their language the inhabitants of the high mountains,* are at present free, and have no connection with the Georgians except in their dialect. Nothing can equal their want of cleanliness, their rapacity, and their skill in making weapons. The women cover their heads with a linen red handkerchief in such a manner, that only one of the eyes can be seen.† This is probably the origin of the geographic fable of a nation of one-eyed people, or Monommati. We may also consider the *Phthirophagi*, or the eaters of vermin, and who, according to Strabo, inhabit this country, as the progenitors of the Suanes. The almost inaccessible mountains of slate which separate Mingrelia from the countries of the Abasses and Basians, and which are extended to the confines of this last province, place the Suanes out of all danger. They consist of about 5000 families, who live there without a chief and without a prince. Dreaded formerly by the Byzantine empire, they are still renowned for their savage valour; a tall and commanding figure contributes to make them appear formidable. They know the use of the musket; they can

Singular customs.

* Pallas, Travels into the South of Russia, I. p. 419, (in German.)

† Reineggs, II. 15-17.

make powder, and all kinds of weapons, for which their mines furnish them with materials. We find among them not only lead and copper, but vases, and chains of gold and silver.

The Abasses.

The *Abasses*, or Abasgiens, dwell above the Suanes and Mingrelians, in a country situated at the foot of the Caucasus, at the north-west extremity, partly upon the borders of the Black Sea, where there are several ports and strong places belonging to the Turks; and partly towards the source of the river Kuban, where the mountain Elboors rises, which overlooks the six tribes of Abassians, called by the Tartars *Altikesek*. The first part is great Abassia, a very fertile country, although mountainous; the second is little Abassia, where the inhabitants, oppressed by their neighbours the Circassians, are obliged to seek an asylum in the defiles of the mountains, where they are gradually lost.

Physical character.

The Abassians, who give themselves the name of *Absne*, are very well made, hardy, and active: their national physiognomy is very remarkable, they have an oval face, a head very much compressed on each side, a short chin, a large nose, and hair of a deep chesnut colour. The Greeks formerly knew them as cunning and formidable pirates, by the name of *Aschæi*. Under the name of *Abasgi* they were described amongst the Byzantines as infamous for their traffic in slaves. The Circassians one day invited the Abassian Princes to an assembly, and after having won them over, they murdered the chiefs of this free people. Since that period the Abassians, abandoned to civil wars, have lost the little civilization which they had received from Constantinople. We find, however, in the celebration of Sunday, a slight trace of Christianity which they formerly imbibed. Some of them wander peaceably through their forests of oaks and alders, which cover the country, while others support themselves by a little agriculture; all however are more or less inclined to robbery, and sell each other to the slave merchants.*

Civil and moral state.

* Reineggs, I. p. 265, *sqq.* Guldenstedt, I. 464. Comp. Chardin, Lambert, *&c.*

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The language and customs of the Abassians very much resemble those of the Circassians;* while Pallas affirms that their language appears to have no relation with any known one.† It is supposed that there are mines in those parts, but they are not worked. The situation of the inhabitants is adapted to navigation and fishing, but they do not take advantage of it.

Language.

Commerce.

The chief trade of the Abassians consists in mantles of cloth and felt, in skins of foxes and pole cats, in honey, in wax, and box-wood, of which the Turks make considerable purchases. The Turkish and Armenian merchants, who bring them salt and stuffs, are obliged to be constantly on their guard against the attacks of these perfidious savages, who, whenever they are strong enough in numbers, rob friends and enemies without distinction.‡

Towns of Abassia.

Abassia is, in general, covered with forests, where the heat and moisture keep up as abundant a vegetation as in those of America; and the convolvuli stifle the trees under their twining branches. It is not true that Sootchukalé is the only good port which that long coast possesses.§ Ghelindjik also affords a vast and deep harbour.‖ Ritzounda, the ancient *Pityus*, formerly flourished by its commerce. Mamai appears to be of the first importance amongst the towns or villages of the country.

Principal Tribes.

The tribes of the Abassians are in great numbers. We particularly know the Beshilbai, the Shapsiches, and the Natuchashes. The first inhabit a mountainous and inaccessible country near little Abassia; the Shapsihes dwell further towards the west, among whom the greatest marauder is generally their chief prince. They make incursions as far as the town of Anapa, where they harass the

* Guldenstedt, I. 464, 467.

† Pallas, Voyage dans la Russie méridionale, I. 372.

‡ Peyssonel, Traité du Commerce, II.

§ Guldenstedt, Journal de Pétersbourg, 1. 1776, May, p. 16.

‖ See the plan in the Annales des Voyages, V. 210.

Turks. The Natuchashes, the strongest and the most considerable of the tribes, dwell nearer to the coast. Springs of naphtha are found similar to those which are seen in the southern part of Caucasus.

To the north of the country of the Abassians we meet with the mouths of the Kuban, which, flowing from the central part of Caucasus, receives in its course all the water of the western branch of that chain of mountains. The sandy plain which extends to the north of this river furnishes it with more. Its two mouths embrace the island of Taman, which is flat and marshy but fertile, and in which the town of Fanegoria, the ancient Phanagoria, attracts a little trade. It belongs to the Russians, as well as the whole plain to the north of the Kuban, and the south-west of the sea of Azoff. These countries, in which there are beds of salt and sand alternating, with calcareous stones and shells, have hardly any vegetation except on the borders of the rivers. These deserts, the uniformity of which is only interrupted by little clumps of willows, hedge plants, and osiers, or by a few elms and aspin trees, now bear the name of the country of the Tchernomorskoi Cossacks, or the cossacks of the Black Sea.* These warlike tribes are the remains of the celebrated Zaporogian Cossacks, of whom we shall give an account in our description of Russia.

Mouths of the Kuban.

Cossacks of the Black Sea.

The middle and eastern part of that sandy plain which separates the sea of Azoff from the Caspian Sea exactly resembles that which we have just described. It is particularly along the rivers Manitsh and Kooma, that we find plains entirely dry, or slightly moistened with brackish water, containing a great number of shells, and a soil very little elevated above the level of the two neighbouring seas. It is by following the beds of these two rivers that we may discover the traces of that ancient strait, which several learned men have imagined† united the Caspian Sea to the Palus-Meotis; because, farther north, some hills rise

Plains of Manytch and Kooma.

Hypothesis on an ancient Strait.

* Georgi, Description statisque de la Russie, II. 911. Pallas, Guldenstedt, &c.

† Dureau de la Malle, Géographie physique de la mer Noire.

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which separate the Don from the Wolga; and more to the south, in approaching the sources of the Kuban and of the Terek, we find the soil gently rise, black earth covering the beds of sand, and the common vegetation of these climates replacing the saline plants.* We shall confine ourselves to this indication of facts, and of the possibility which may arise from them; a discussion upon the actual existence of this strait would be here out of place. Deficient in historical proofs, we readily consign to geologists and poets the consideration of ages anterior to history. This plain was known to the ancients in the same state as it appears at present. The different statements as to its breadth, are, like many other contradictions of the ancients, owing to measurements having been taken carelessly, and without instruments. And, lastly, the passage from whence it is too hastily inferred that, in the fourth century, the isthmus was covered with marshes,† relates only to one marshy lake, called *Bolischei*, which is still in existence.

Government of Caucasia.

All those low countries which extend to the east of the country of the Tchernomorskoi Cossacks, and to the north of the Kuban and the Terek, form the government, not long ago the province of Caucasia, which forms part of the Russian Empire. It is inhabited by different tribes of Cossacks and of Nogaian Tartars. These last, being obliged to wander from pasture to pasture, live in hordes under the protection of the Russians. They subsist on the produce of their cattle, a little millet, or by some acts of plunder which they execute as opportunity offers. When caught, they have been sometimes punished by the immediate loss of an arm or of a foot, separated on the spot, which savage punishment has spread universal terror among these wretched wanderers. Many eye witnesses have given a most affecting account of the manner in which their relations receive these mutilated individuals: they hasten to

Tartars.

* Georgi, Descrip. stat. II. 217.

† Prisc, de Legat. apud Stritter, Memoriæ Popul. I. 513, in contradiction with Pallas's first Travels, III. 574.

stop the blood by bathing them with warm milk, and then conducting them into their huts, where they take every care of them. The Cossacks form the ruling people, of which the principal tribe bears the surname of Grebenski. A chain of fortresses protects the Russian empire against the invasions of the formidable nations of Mount Caucasus. Among these places, *Kisliar* upon the Terek, where there is considerable trade, reckons nearly 12,000 inhabitants; Mosdok and Georgievsk are at present the chief places, and are daily improving in importance and civilization. Millet, Indian corn, rice, fig-trees, and cotton, are much cultivated here; but the rigour of the winter, the quantity of snow, and still more the want of salutary shelter, render the existence of vegetables, even of the more hardy species, very precarious. There are, however, in the vicinity of the Terek, a great many orchards and vineyards.*

Cossacks.

Towns.

Productions.

After passing the Kuban or the Terek, we find on the northern sides of Mount Caucasus the celebrated nation of the Circassians, whose real name is *Tcherkes*. They may be divided into two classes, the Circassians of Kuban, and the Circassians of Kabardia, sometimes called Kabardinians. It is probable, that the *Zyges* of Strabo, the *Ziches*, or *Zeches* of the Byzantine authors,† were a Circassian tribe, since *Zyg*, in Circassian, signifies a man.‡ The Ossetes still call them Kasachi, which reminds us of the *Kasaches*, established, according to the Byzantine authors, and the annals of Nestor, in the tenth century, in the environs of Caucasus. A similarity in the sound of *Kerketes* in Strabo, to *Tcherkes*, has determined both Pallas and Reineggs to consider that ancient tribe as the true stock of the ancient Circassians. What appears most in favour of this opinion is, that the Circassians are the original inhabitants of these countries.

Circassians.

Name and origin.

* Georgi, l. c. 932, *sqq.* Guldenstedt, I. 152, 156; and Busching, Magasin. Geograph. VI. 466.

† Sa Stritter, Memoriæ popul. art. *Zecchica.*

‡ Rommel Caucasus, p. 12.

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Circassian tribes.

The most remarkable of the Circassian tribes of Kuban is, without doubt, that of the Temirgoï; they inhabit more than forty fortified villages, and can levy a force of 2000 men. To the east of the Temirgoi the Beslenes live, a horde who lead a life of ease. Their neighbours are the Muscheks, who are good agriculturists, and breed cattle: they also profit by the fisheries, which their numerous rivers afford them. The Shagacki, below the Turkish fortress of Anapa, have a prince who formerly possessed some ships on the Black Sea. The Circassians of Kabardia are but a half civilized nation. They inhabit a fertile country situated about the middle of Caucasus, upon the northern side of that chain, bounded on the north by the river Terek, and on the east by the country of Kistes-Tchetchentzes. It is divided into Great and Little Kabardia.

Physical character.

The Circassians of Kabardia are distinguished from all the people of Caucasus by their beauty and elegance. The men have a Herculean figure, a small foot and strong wrist, and they manage the sabre with wonderful dexterity. The women are delicate, and possess a pleasing and graceful form: their skin is white, with brown or black hair; their features are regular and agreeable, and they pay that attention to cleanliness which heightens the attractions of beauty. This is what renders the Circassian women so much admired, even among Europeans. Some travellers assert that it is the colour of their hair, which has a slight tinge of red, that makes them so superior in beauty. The Circassian, prince or noble, that is to say, whoever is not a bondman, and who possesses a horse, is always armed with a poignard and a brace of pistols; and he rarely goes out without his sabre and his bow. The belt of the sabre is fastened round his body, and a helmet and cuirass cover his head and chest. This is, in fact, a faithful representation of a knight of the 10th or 11th century. The whole of Kabardia can fit out 1500 of these cavalry, called *Usden*, and 10,000 peasants, or bondmen, equipped for battle; but the former, in consequence of continual hostilities among themselves, are very much weakened.

Population.

The soil of Kabardia is excellent, and well adapted to agriculture. The winters are nevertheless severe, and the heat is not of long duration. The inhabitants neglect the gifts of nature, and they derive no advantage from the fine forests of oaks, elms, and alders, which cover their hills; but they are said to possess mines of more valuable metals than iron and brass, which they make use of for their arms. Productions. Cultivation.

The Circassians build their houses with a slight wooden frame work, and hurdles painted white, and convey the water from the nearest rivulets with considerable skill by means of a canal. The inns exhibit a laudable degree of cleanliness. The peasants, or bondmen, and the prisoners of war, are charged with the care of farming, and looking after the cattle. They make use of large ploughs, to which are harnessed six or eight oxen. Hemp is one of the natural products of the soil. A great number of goats, sheep, oxen, and horses, form the principal riches of the Circassians. They also traffic in wool and wax. The horses are distinguished for their beauty, their strength, and their agility. Each prince, or nobleman, marks his colts with a hot iron, if they are thorough bred; and whoever profanes that mark, or puts it upon a common horse, is punished with death.

Their feudal system is also remarkable. The vassal who belongs to the noble as his own property, although not sold to him, is obliged to do all kinds of personal services, but he pays no contribution. The nobles maintain order among the people, and render military service to the prince: the latter keeps an open table, to the expense of which every person who possesses herds contributes. Marriages are contracted according to the riches and birth of the parties. A plain nobleman who runs away with a princess, incurs the punishment of death. Whenever a prince or princess is born, a nobleman is selected who is to take charge of the child's education. The father and mother banish it from their presence until the period when the son is fit for battle, and the daughter of an age to be Constitution. Education. Marriage.

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married. Under the guidance of his tutor, the youth familiarizes himself with the chace, war, and pillage, and in recompence he divides his booty with him. It was thus that the centaur Chiron brought up the young Achilles. The simple and light diet which a girl of distinction lives on tends to preserve that graceful and slender form so suitable to a princess. She is taught to embroider, to sew, to plait straw, and to make small baskets with it. Newly married persons see each other in private for the space of a year. The woman receives her husband in the dead of the night, and makes him enter by the window. They do not shew themselves to their relations until there is an existing pledge of their union. This similarity between the Circassian women and the Amazons is connected with the ancient tradition of the Circassians, of the intercourse they had with a nation, named *Emmetch* (a name from which the Greeks may have made *Amazon*.) Hence that ingenious hypothesis by which the Circassians are identified with the Sarmatians, descended from a mixture of Scythians and Amazons.*

Language. The Circassian princes and nobles speak a language peculiar to themselves, and unintelligible to the people. Is this only a political institution, or is it the proof of a different origin?—There exists amongst the Circassians a right to

Hospitality. hospitality called *Kunadi*. Happy is the stranger who obtains it! his host recommends him to all his relatives; and were he charged with the greatest crime, he is still in safety, because his host answers for him. The Circassians denounce dreadful vengeance on those who kill their relations; the whole family of the criminal shares his punishment, and if the vengeance of blood be not allayed by a pecuniary indemnity, it is transmitted even by marriage.†

Religion. These people were formerly Christians, with scarcely

* Reineggs, Topographie du Caucase, I. 238. Pallas, I. 390.

† This was the system in England previous to, and even during the reign of Alfred.—Tr.

any religious worship. They are now Mahometans, but wholly devoid of zeal. The mausoleums of the Circassians are constructed of hewn stone, and surrounded with colonades.

Basians.

The *Basians*, who dwell below the Circassians, and by the side of the Suanes, are the ancient inhabitants of Kabardia. Pursued by the Circassian nobles, they were compelled to seek an asylum in the high barren mountains which are covered with snow, and they live there to the present time, still tributary to their ancient persecutors. They are, according to their own account, a mixture of a variety of nations; namely, Bulgarians, Greeks, Kalmuks, Kumuks, but principally Nogais, who are Mongols or Huns.

Tribes.

The Basians comprehend three tribes, the Tshegems, the Balkars, and the Karatshas.

Worship.

Traces of Christianity are to be found amongst them, and we are assured that in their country a church is to be seen, which, though ancient, is still in good preservation. A road opened through the rocks, and furnished with a balustrade of iron on both sides, conducts to the church by a serpentine path; and the gospel and the rituals are in the Greek language.

Productions, and qualities of the country.

The Basians have very considerable herds of oxen. Their mules are much praised: they cultivate millet and oats; and they extract lead from the mines of Kargatchin Tau, that is to say, the leaden mountain: they prepare saltpetre, and sell gunpowder. M. Reineggs has observed in Basiania a great many interesting objects of natural history; several of the valleys are filled with sulphurous exhalations, and thunderbolts fall more frequently here than any where else. Near the river Jetchick, which flows into the Kuban, there are hot springs so corroding, that they cause swellings in the mouths of those who drink of them.* In the environs of Mount Elboors there is an elevation, composed entirely of a golden-coloured micaceous gravel or yellow mica, which is so loose that men and horses

* Reineggs, Topographie du Caucase, I. 291.

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sink in it as in water. Colonades of basalt, in prisms of three, five, eight, and nine sides, are found in the high mountains towards the sources of the Terek; but it may be doubted whether M. Reineggs, who has drawn them,* knew how to distinguish this enigmatical rock in a correct manner.

Basaltes.

Ossetes.

The *Ossetes* dwell to the east of the Basians. They are called sometimes Ossi, Ossis, Ossites, or Ossitinians. In this, as in numerous other instances, we adopt the radical part of the name by which a nation is designated either by the people belonging to it or by their neighbours, while the terminating syllables are in some measure arbitrary, till such time as the celebrity or familiarity of the people among those who write about them establishes some unchanging designation. On seeing the clothing, the light chesnut hair, and the red beards of these people, we should say that they were peasants from the north of Russia. They give themselves the name of *Irones*. Their language has some connection with the German, Sclavonian, and still more with the Persian. The country of the Ossetes commands the communications with Georgia. It extends from the sources of the Terek to the northern branches of the Kur. In these ruggid mountains, all the rivers flow with an astonishing rapidity. The manners of the Ossetes are of a characteristic simplicity; their method of saluting consists in touching the chest for men, and the bosom for women. In their funerals there is a noisy ostentation of grief: the women beat their breasts, and threaten to precipitate themselves from the top of a rock. They afterwards eat and drink in honour of the dead for three days.† The houses of the Ossetes resemble so many castles in miniature, and although vassals of Russia, they live in a state of wild independence.

Manners and customs.

Natural curiosities.

It is alleged that there is met with in that part of Caucasus, a large bird of a very beautiful variegated plumage,

* Reineggs, ibid. I. 286. tab. iii. Compare Georgi, II. 970.

† Reineggs, I. 218.

resembling a pheasant; the Ossetes call it Sym. A sort of friendly alliance is said to subsist between it and the wild goats, the partners of its solitude. At the approach of the hunter it sends forth a shrill whistle, which serves to warn the quadrupeds of the impending danger. There are still to be seen in this country thousands of caverns hollowed out of the rugged rock, upon almost inaccessible mountains, and generally of the height of sixty feet. They are now abandoned, but we may still trace the vestiges of the ancient inhabitants.* The Russian fort of Darial is situated on the eastern frontiers of Ossetia. A few slight fortifications, and a small garrison, would render this pass impregnable. At this place, the road now used leads for a considerable way through a subterraneous passage cut in the solid rock.

Tribes of the Ossetians.

The most considerable tribe of the *Ossetians* is that of the Dugores. They are said to be tributary to the Badilles, a sort of knights or freemen, living in the highest mountains, and separated by a small river from another equally unknown tribe, that of the Nitigures, a name apparently of Hunnic origin. The Tcherkessates have words which they esteem sacred, and which are divided into sections, according to the number of their families. They celebrate annual festivals, which last eight days, and resemble that of tabernacles among the Jews. Travellers are hospitably invited to partake, and one of the families is charged with the care of entertaining them. The Dimsars, a republican colony, are incessantly at war with the Dugores. We find in their canton a cavern of Saint Nicholas, a relic of their ancient faith. This Russian Saint is supposed to appear there under the form of an eagle, to receive the food which is offered to him; of course, there will be no lack of birds of prey exactly to personate the Saint in this particular.—Some missionaries have recently taken a very wise advantage of this people's former profession of Christianity to offer to re-instruct them in the principles of religion and civilization, and these offers were accepted by the late General Kasibek, one of their chiefs, and by those who acknowledged his authority. This is accompanied with a ten-

Particular customs.

Cavern of St. Nicholas.

Reformation of the Ossetes.

* Pallas, premier voyage, VII. p. 55—79. Reinegg, I. 233.

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dency to a good understanding with the Russian government, and an acquiescence in the plans of general amelioration happily begun in these countries. The advantage of this change begins to be felt by those travellers who cross the Caucasus along the chain of Russian posts from Mosdoc to Teflis, up the precipitous banks of the Terek, and down those of the Aragui. A strong Russian escort is necessary for security, but a distant approximation to co-operation on the part of the natives is agreeable and encouraging. Sir Robert Ker Porter was hospitably entertained at the house of General Kasibek's family, near the mountain called Kasibek. He and his party were struck with the contrast between the dutiful civilities paid by the servants to their master's guests and the assassin-like expression of their countenances and equipments, indicating the powerful lineaments left by their former habits, and intimating the prudence of observing precautions against those tendencies which might be still suspected of retaining a degree of activity.*

Kistetia.

The mountainous tract which extends from the eastern limits of Ossetia towards the north, between the rivers Sunsha and Aksaî is called *Kistia* or Kistetia by the Russian travellers and geographers. It is like Kabardia, a country of forests and pastures, with districts adapted to agriculture.† The different wild tribes that live there are known under various general names; the Georgians call them Kistes; the Tartars, Mizshegis; their principal tribe assumes the name of Ingooshes or Intooshes. We distinguish also the Tchetchentzi or Tetentzes, the Karabulaks, and the Tushes. They all speak a particular language, which appears to be very ancient. In war, they carry a buckler, and this ancient custom distinguishes them from all the other inhabitants of Caucasus.

Kistes.

Ingooshes, their worship.

Amongst the Ingooshes, we observe vestiges of the true religion. An anchoret called the Zannistag, living in celi-

* Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. I. p. 77.

† Georgi, Russia, IV. 971.

bacy, and dwelling by the side of an ancient church, performs the functions of priest; before a numerous assembly he immolates on an altar of stone a number of white sheep, which the richest and most distinguished families provide. This church, situated in the territory of the Ingooshes, bears a Gothic inscription, and contains some Latin books, ornamented with blue, black, and gilt characters; these books are revered as relics. Thirty little dwellings for hermits are erected in the vicinity of this ancient edifice, which has been always held as an inviolable sanctuary in the midst of the wars in which these barbarians are continually engaged.

The Ingooshes have a very characteristic physiognomy, and a pronunciation so extremely harsh that a stranger would think they were rolling pebbles in their mouths. They can muster 5000 men capable of bearing arms. The Karabulaks deserve to be noticed on account of their dialect, which appears to be that of the celebrated Alans; for the town of Theodosia, in Tauris, was called by the Alanic name Trdanda, signifying seven gods; now this word retains the same signification amongst the Karabulaks.* Karabulaks.

The Tchetchentzi or Tetentzes inhabit seven large villages; they sometimes extend their depredations beyond the Russian frontiers, and then retire to their native mountains, where they can bid defiance to the pursuit of the Cossacks. They are considered as the most formidable of all the tribes which inhabit the innumerable rocky valleys of the eastern part of this chain. They are not only a dread to their immediate neighbours, tribes similar to themselves, but they keep the disciplined Russians continually on the alert. They are unwearied in their watch for prey, quick as lightning in attack or escape, unsparing in plunder, and murder without mercy those whom they rob, excepting Christians, from whom they expect ad- Tchetchentzi.

* Peripl. Euxin. Anonym. in Geog. Græc. Min. Rommel. on *Caucasus*, in the Magasin Ethnographique, I. p. 90.

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ditional plunder in the form of ransom. They initiate their youth at a very early age in their marauding expeditions; and the more bold and sanguinary they show themselves, the higher they stand in the estimation of their tribe. He who most frequently surpasses the rest in the execution of desperate and cruel enterprises, commonly becomes the leader of his brethren, and the chief of many families. They have one supreme chief, whose dignity is hereditary. He alone commands them on any enterprise of general interest, but he possesses no civil authority or jurisdiction. They have a sort of common law universally understood, which maintains an intestine regularity. When this is violated, a tribunal of their elders takes cognizance of the case, and the offender is instantly put to death, his dwelling erased, and his property given to the party injured. They were once a sort of Christians, and they still observe Easter. They now consider themselves as Mussulmans; but the establishment of a few domestic regulations is the only symptom of their connection with the Arabian prophet.*

Tushes. On the south-east we find the Tushes, that is to say, the *dreamers*, a name which they owe to their superstition. They are the *Tusci* of Ptolemy. They entertain a great veneration for cats. It is said that among them the father gives to his son, at the age of six or seven years, a young adult girl for a wife, and exercises himself the privileges of a husband until the boy arrives at puberty. The children which are the fruit of this union are brought up as part of the family. This strange custom existed till lately in European Russia. A small but very strong species of mule is found here, said to be the offspring of the jack-ass and the cow.

The eastern part of Caucasus, or ancient Albania, is divided into innumerable cantons, but which modern geography comprehends under two denominations, *Daghestan*,

Daghestan.

* Sir R. K. Porter's Travels, vol. I. p. 60.

which includes all the declivities of Caucasus towards the Caspian Sea, and *Lesghistan*, containing the more elevated valleys towards Georgia, and the country of the Kistes. Lesghistan is a district liable to great variation of extent: Its limits enlarge or diminish according to the results of the wars which the robbers called Lesghians constantly wage with the other Caucasian nations.

Lesghistan.

The Lesghians, who appear to be the Legæ of the ancients,* have become formidable by their inveterate habits of plunder; they seize upon men and herds, and whatever else they can find in the neighbouring districts. They carry off their booty on swift horses, and break down behind them the bridges of ice and snow which cover the precipices of Caucasus. Accustomed to endure hunger and thirst, they carry with them only a slender stock of provisions, either in leathern bottles or in goat's skins. But, when reduced to the last extremity, they draw lots among themselves, and he whom accident selects is forthwith devoured by his comrades. Their manner of living, and the pure air which they breathe upon their mountains, contribute to their extreme longevity. Just before death, the old Lesghian who has survived the perils of the field of battle, sends for his relations and his heirs, and points out to them where his gold, his silver, and his jewels, are deposited, and then dies contented. This nation possesses some mines.

Lesghians. Manner of living.

In Daghestan we see the Lesghians peaceably driving their herds to a distance from the mountains, and paying a contribution for the pasturage. Their women, celebrated for their beauty, are no less distinguished for their courage. Several of the Lesghian tribes profess Mahometanism; some traces of the Christian faith may also be observed among them, but the less civilized still worship the sun, the moon, trees, and rivers.

Their language has some affinity to that of the inhabitants of Finland, but the diversity of the Lesghian dia-

Lesghian language.

* Reineggs, I. 188.

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lects is very great. An attempt has been made to reduce them to the number of eight. 1. The *Awares*, and the fourteen tribes resembling them, which occupy the northern part of Lesghistan, speak the first dialect. The district of Awar, or Aor, the remainder of the Aorses, and the parent tribe of the celebrated Awares, bear also the name of Chunsag, which signifies, the empire of the Chunes or Huns. About 1500 Mahometan families live here very peaceably, under the government of a khan, who is reckoned one of the most powerful princes of Caucasus, and whose abode is distinguished from the rest by having glass windows. 2. The tribes of *Dido* and of *Unso* speak the second dialect: they dwell in the mountains above the district of the Tchares; pasture their sheep in the Kacheti, and live in a state of happy indolence. 3. The third dialect is that of the *Kubutches*, who are supposed to dwell near the Didos, towards the east. 4. The fourth is in use among the *Andys*, who, according to Guldenstedt, inhabit a country bordered by a branch of the river Koisu. 5. The *Akooshes*, the *Kooveshes*, and the *Zudacars*, three tribes whose dwellings extend along the frontier of Daghestan, and even within that province, speak the fifth dialect. The Kooveshes or Kubashes, are the most deserving of notice. They enjoy a considerable degree of independence, and are industrious, sober, honest, and loyal. It is said that they call themselves Frenks, and claim a European origin. It might have been supposed that they are the descendants of some Venetians or Genoese, who in the 15th century visited the coast of the Black Sea, had not more accurate researches proved that their language resembles that of the Lesghians. The Kubashes act as brokers in the trade which is carried on between Persia and Russia. They bring to Kisliar considerable quantities of cotton.* At home they are employed in the manufac-

Awares.

Didos, Unso, &c.

Kabutches.

Kooveshes, or Kubashes.

Commerce and manufactures.

* Guldenstedt, Voyage, &c. I. 101. Reineggs, I. 60—113. Forster, Voyage du Bengale, &c. II.

ture of iron, gold, and silver—in forging cuirasses—and in making fine handkerchiefs, mantles of felt, and carpets. Their women are active, ingenious, and even well-informed, and occupy themselves with embroidering. The Kubashes banish from their country all idle persons and beggars. Their integrity is so generally known that the Lesghian princes deposit with them the treasures which they have accumulated, and the neighbouring tribes submit all controversies to their arbitration. They are Mahometans, but confine themselves to one wife. Twelve of their deans are entrusted with the keeping of a capital stock, which is the produce of their common labour. 6. The Kasikumuks, shepherds and marauders, who live upon the banks of a branch of the river Koisu, speak the sixth Lesghian dialect. 7. The seventh is current among the *Kaïdaiks*, and the Karakaidaks, who inhabit the districts lying between the towns of Tarku and Derbend. These people are remarkably swift, and uncommonly dextrous in handling the musket and the sabre. The fertile valleys of the Kaïdaiks contain many beautiful villages. The prince of the Kaïdaiks is called the Uzmey; his son, it is alleged, is suckled by all the women of the country, for the purpose no doubt of strengthening their attachment to their future sovereign. 8. The *Kuraïes*, who possess some villages near Tabasseran, a flourishing district, governed by a prince of its own, speak the eighth Lesghian dialect, which is believed to be also common to the inhabitants of the district.

Kasikumuks.

Kaïdaiks.

Prince or Uzmey.

Tabasseran.

Oriental Caucasus contains also two Tartar nations. The *Kumuks* reside to the north of Daghestan, upon the borders of the Caspian Sea. About twelve hundred families, under the government of Beys, dwell here in cabins made of hurdles of osiers. The *Truchmenes* are spread over all the eastern side of Caucasus, but principally in the south of Daghestan, and in the whole of the province of Schirwan. These wanderers speak the Turkish dialect of the Tartar language. They are governed by their here-

Kumuks and Truchmenes.

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ditary khans, the most powerful of whom reside at Kooba, at Shamachia, and at Sallian.

From the state of warfare and anarchy in which these tribes live, their political topography can never be fixed. The vague word Lesghistan, or country of the Lesghians, enlarges and contracts with the invasions of that fierce people: the name Daghestan signifies a country of mountains. Its application is as undetermined as that of Gorski, or inhabitants of the mountains, given by the Russians to the majority of the petty Caucasian hordes. The uncertain extent of these terms too affects the limits to be assigned to Shirwan, which custom or circumstances have represented as commencing sometimes at Derbend, and sometimes at Bakou.* Leaving these points undecided, we shall briefly notice the most remarkable places as we pass from north to south.

Limits of Daghestan and of Schirwan.

The country of the Kumuks extends from the banks of the Terek to those of the Koisu. It comprehends the gulf and the peninsula of Agrachanschoi. The most remarkable place is Endery, the market where the Lesghians sell their plunder. To the south of the Koisu is the territory of a Tartar chief, who assumes the title of Shamkal, and who resides in Tarku, a town containing 10,000 inhabitants, upon the shores of the Caspian Sea.† Ascending the Koisu, we arrive at the dominions of Ouma-Khan, or Khan of the Awares, of whom we have before spoken. The town of Chunsag contains about 600 houses. Upon the eastern back of the mountains, we find the interesting town of Kubasha, with its industrious population of about 6000 souls. The territory of the prince, or Uzmey, reaches to Derbend; he resides at Barshli. The town of Derbend, shut up between the mountains and the sea, reck-

Towns and remarkable places.

Derbend.

* Compare Busching, Géographie, II. par. 2. Georgi, Russie, II. 975. Wahl, Asie Occidentale, I. 459—482.

† Bieberstein, Description des Pays entre le Terek et le Kur, in the Annales des Voyages, XII. p. 180.

ons from 6 to 700 houses; its thick and lofty walls astonish the traveller, but oppose no barrier to the advance of armies; its insecure port has but little trade. We here begin to feel the influence of a milder climate. The territories of Derbend, Koura, and Kouba, must be reckoned amongst the most delightful of countries. It is here that, according to Strabo, the inhabitants reaped a harvest of fifty fold, and saw these rich crops spring up twice or thrice every year. Even in our days the soil is in some places so rich and strong that six or eight oxen must be yoked to the plough. A great quantity of wheat, barley, saffron, cotton, and various fruits, is exported.* The territory of Kouba has been called by the Persians the Paradise of Roses. There are places where from each cleft of the rock a vine may be seen shooting out.† But these fine regions are subjected to excessive humidity; and are in several places infected with reptiles and pernicious insects. The towns of Tabasseran, Acouti, and others, are the chief residences of the petty sovereignties in the mountains. The khan of Koura extends his dominion to the sea, where the river Samour, probably the Albanus of the ancients, discharges its abundant waters through ten or twelve mouths. Kouba, the abode of the most powerful khan of that country, contains only about 400 or 500 houses. Below Kouba is the town of Shabran, which was built by Hebrews under the name of Samaria. Some Jews still live there, who are distinguished by their handsome persons, and their easy manners. These towns, situated upon the eastern part of Caucasus, look towards the Caspian Sea. As we pass the mountains, we see, extending to south-west and the south, the territories of Dshceki, Shamachia, Khana, and Sallian. The two first are bounded by the Kur, the other two occupy the insular plain encompassed by that river and the Aras. New Shamachia, a trading town of 5000 inhabitants, is considered as the capital of Shirwan.

Paradise of Roses.

New Shamachia.

* Gmelin's Travels, III. 68. Bieberstein, Description of the Countries between the Terek and the Kur, p. 31, (in German.)

† Reinegg, I. p. 107.

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The Kur, after being augmented by the junction of one of its branches with the Aras, becomes navigable. The sturgeon fisheries at its mouth, near Sallian, bring in 20,000 rubles (or L.3000) to the khan of Kouba, who lets it out to the Russians.* To the east of Shamachia Caucasus decreases in height. An extensive neck of land shoots into the Caspian sea, called the Peninsula of Apsheron, or of Okeressa, whose saline and clayey soil is covered with a lan-guishing vegetation, but whose celebrated springs of naphtha form a source of inexhaustible wealth to the petty sovereign of the town of Bakou. The principal springs are at Balaghan, one of them furnishes 500 pounds a-day. Not far from thence is the *field of fire*, about a square verst in extent, and continually emitting an inflammable gas. The Guebres, or worshippers of fire, have built several small temples there. In one of these, near an altar, a large hollow pipe is fixed in the earth, from the upper end a blue flame issues more subtile than that from spirits of wine: a similar flame escapes from a horizontal opening made in the rock. A hill near Bakou furnishes white naphtha, but in very limited quantities. The Russians make use of it both as a medicinal drug and as a cordial; they apply it also externally. Not far from thence are two springs of hot water, which bubble up like the naphtha; the water is impregnated with a bluish clay, which renders it thick, but it becomes clear by standing, the clay falling to the bottom. Bathing in it braces the system, and improves the appetite. The khan of Bakou derives from the naphtha a revenue of 14,000 rubles, (or L.2100.) The town of Bakou, which has a road for ships by no means safe, though the best upon the coast, exports to Russia, besides naphtha, some cotton, rice, and a small quantity of wine and opium. Its territory also supplies salt, which is obtained from several lakes or salt marshes.

Peninsula of Apsheron.

Springs of naphtha.

Town of Bakou.

Such are the principal nations, countries, and towns, of the Caucasian region; in surveying which we have unavoid-

* Georgi. II. 977. Compare Beiberstein, &c.

ably been somewhat prolix, from the number and the minuteness of the objects to be described.

Table of the Geographical Positions of the Caucasian Region.

Names of the places.	Long. E. from London.			Latitude.			Authorities.
	deg.	min.	sec.	deg.	min.	sec.	
Derbend . .	47	39	15	42	5	45	Rus. Atlas in 100 sheets.
Kislar . . .	46	14	15	43	51	15	Idem.
				(43	54	0)	Calendar of Petersburgh.
Mosdok . .	43	50	15	43	48	46	Russian Atlas.
Taman . . .	36	35	0	45	12	16	Id. Archive of Lichtenstern.
Tiflis	44	20	15	41	28	30	Idem.

Note. The Table annexed to the Russian Atlas is founded on Astronomical observations, chiefly recent.

Synoptical Table of the Political Divisions of the Caucasian Countries.

Great Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Capitals.	Sovereigns.
Caucasia, (government of,)	1. Circle of Gregoriewsk.	Gregoriewsk, or Yegoriewsk.	Russia.
	2. — of Alexandrow.		
	3. — of Kizliar.		
	4. — of Stauropol.		
	5. — of Mosdok.		
Countries of the Cossacks of the Black Sea.	Make a part of the government of Tauris.	Ekaterinodar.	Idem.
Circassia.	1. Circassia of Kuban.	None.	Independent.
	2. Great Kabarda.		
	3. Little Kabarda.		
Abassia. .	Different cantons.	None.	Under the protection of Turkey.
Western Georgia, formerly Turkish Georgia.	1. Mingrelia. . . . . Odischi, canton.	Isgaour.	A czar, a vassal of Russia.
	2. Imeritia. . . . . Kadsha, canton.	Kutatis.	A prince, vassal of Imeritia.
	3. Guria.	Titizigha (?)	Dependent on the Turks.

BOOK XXV.

Continuation of the Synoptic Table of the Political Divisions of the Caucasian Countries.

Great Division.	Subdivisions.	Capitals.	Sovereigns.
Eastern Georgia, formerly Persian Georgia.	1. Circle of Tiflis.	Tiflis.	Russia.
	2. — of Gori.		
	3. — of Ananur.		
	4. — of Tela.		
	5. — of Sibnah.		
	6. — of Adjakala.		
	Once divided into Kardueli and Kacheti.		
Gorski, or people of the mountains.	1. Suanetia.	None.	Princes or *elders*, most of them dependents on Russia.
	2. Basiania.		
	3. Ossetia.		
	4. Kistia, or Ingooshia.		
	5. Tchetchentzia.		
Lesghistan.	1. Khanat of Awar.	Chunsag, or Awar. (according to some Kabudana.)	Independt. khan.
	2. Lordships of Kazikumuks.	Kasamish, Kumuk.	Various chiefs.
	3. The cantons of Tchari, Tushes, &c.	None.	Various chiefs.
Daghestan.	1. Country of the Kumuks.	Endery, &c.	Princes dependent on Russia.
	2. Khanat of Tarku.	Tarku.	Khan dependent on Russia (Shamkal.)
	3. — of Kaïdak.	Kaïdak, Barshli.	Idem (the Uzmey.)
	4. District of Kubascha.	Kubasha. . . .	Dependent on the khan of Kaïdak.
	5. — of Akusha.	Akusha.	Idem.
	6. — of Derbend.	Derbend. . . .	Russsia (1809.)
	7. — of Koura.	Koura.	Dependent on the Russians, but formerly on the Persians.
	8. — of Kouba.	Kouba or Kuba.	Idem.
Shirwan.	1. Khanat of Bakou.	Bakou.	Idem.
	2. — of Shamachia.	Shamachia.	Idem.
	3. — of Dscheki or Kaballa.	Nuchi.	Idem.
	4. Lordship of Sallian.	Sallian. . . .	Khan of Kuba.

Note. The extent and population are uncertain.

BOOK XXVI.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

PART I.

Asia Minor, with the Coasts of the Black Sea.

BOOK XXVI.

WE are now to tread upon a soil rich in interesting and splendid recollections, with an existing population completely debased by ignorance and slavery.

General view.

The glory of twenty different nations which once flourished in Western Asia has been extinguished; flocks wander over the tomb of Achilles and of Hector; and the thrones of Mithridates and the Antiochuses have disappeared, as well as the palaces of Priam and Croesus. The merchants of Smyrna do not inquire whether Homer was born within their walls; the fine sky of Ionia no longer inspires either painters or poets; the same obscurity covers with its shades the banks of the Jordan and the Euphrates; the republic of Moses is not be found; the harps of David and Isaiah are now silent for ever:—the wandering Arabian comes, indifferent and unmoved, to rest the poles of his tent against the shattered columns of Palmyra; Babylon also has fallen beneath the stroke of an avenging destiny, and that city which reigned supreme over oppressed Asia has scarcely left behind it a trace that can shew where the ramparts of Semiramis were raised. "I have seen on the spot," says a traveller, "the accomplishment of that prophecy: 'Tyre, the queen of the nations, shall be made like the top of a rock, where the fishermen shall spread their nets.*'" If, however, European arts and civili-

* Ezekiel xxvi. 4, 5.

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zation were, by some new arrangement of Providence, to revisit this ancient cradle of the human race, we should still find there the charming coast of Ionia, with its picturesque islands; the fertile shores of the Pontus Euxinus, shaded by inexhaustible forests; and in the distance the numerous chains of Mount Taurus, crowned with upland plains, representing on a small scale the vast plateaus of central Asia. We should still see the Euphrates and the Tigris bearing the ice of Armenia towards the burning plains of Mesopotamia; and, seated under the shade of the cedars of Lebanon, our eyes could wander over the orchards and meadows of Damascus. The population only has undergone a change; nature remains essentially the same. In describing these countries we must therefore be permitted, from the ignorance of the inhabitants, and the imperfect accounts of travellers, to avail ourselves of the precious records that have been left by the ancients. We have already, on the authority of Strabo, exhibited a very complete view of the ancient geography of those regions. Strabo will still serve as our guide while we bring together the detached elements of which their modern geography is composed. But, to enable our readers the better to enjoy a view so complex and extensive, we shall separate it into its principal groupes, and shall in the present book confine our attention to the peninsula of Asia Minor, along with the coast of the Euxine Sea.

Mount Taurus in general.

The mountains of Taurus, according to all the descriptions of the ancients, extended from the frontiers of India to the Ægean Sea. Their principal chain, as it shot out from Mount Imaus towards the sources of the Indus, winded, like an immense serpent, between the Caspian Sea and the Pontus Euxinus on one side, and the sources of the Euphrates on the other.* Caucasus seems to have formed part of this line according to Pliny; but Strabo, who was better informed, traces the principal chain of Taurus between the basins of the Euphrates and the Araxes, observing that

* Pliny, Lib. V. cap. 27.

a detached chain of Caucasus, that of the Moschian mountains, runs in a southern direction, and joins the Taurus.* Modern accounts represent this junction as not very marked,† Strabo, who was born on the spot, and who had travelled as far as Armenia, considers the entire centre of Asia Minor, together with all Armenia, Media, and Gordyène, or Koordistan, as a very elevated country, crowned with several chains of mountains, all of which are so closely joined together, that they may be regarded as one. "Armenia and Media," says he, "are situated upon Taurus." This plateau seems also to comprehend Koordistan, and the branches which it sends out extend into Persia, as far as the great desert of Kerman on one side, and towards the sources of the Gihon and the Indus on the other. By thus considering the vast Taurus of the ancients as an upland plain, and not as a chain, the testimonies of Strabo and Pliny may be reconciled with the accounts of modern travellers.

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Two chains of mountains are detached from the plateau of Armenia to enter the peninsula of Asia; the one first confines and then crosses the channel of the Euphrates near Samosata; the other borders the Pontus Euxinus, leaving only narrow plains between it and that sea.‡ These two chains, one of which is in part the Anti-Taurus, and the other the Paryades of the ancients, or the mountain Tcheldir or Keldir of the moderns, are united to the west of the Euphrates, between the town of Siwas, Tocat, and Kaisaria, by means of the chain of the Argæus, now named Argis-Dag, whose summit is covered with perpetual snows,§ a circumstance which, under so low a latitude, shows an elevation of from 9 to 10,000 feet. The centre of Asia resembles a terrace supported on all sides by chains of

Taurus of Asia Minor.

* Strabo, XI. 342. edit. Atrebat. 1587.

† Map of Caucasus by M. Lapie. Annales des Voyages, vol. XII.

‡ Strabo, XII. p. 378. M. Fourcade, Consul General at Sinope, MS. notes.

§ Strabo, XII. Paul Lucas, deuxième voyage, I. 137. Hadgi-Khalfah, Turkish Geography, MS. translation, (French,) p. 1762.

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mountains. Here we find salt marshes, and rivers which have no outlets. It contains a number of small plateaus, one of which Strabo has described under the name of the plain of Ragandené. "The cold there," says he, "prevents the fruit trees from thriving, whilst olive-trees grow near Sinope, which is 3000 stadia more to the north."* Modern travellers have also found very extensive elevated plains throughout the interior of Asia Minor, either in the south, towards Konieh,† or in the north, towards Angora.‡ But all the borders of this plateau constitute so many chains of mountains, which sometimes encircle the plateau, and sometimes extend across the lower plains.

Southern chain. Taurus in the most limited sense.

The chain which, breaking off at once from Mount Argæus and from Anti-Taurus, bounds the ancient Cilicia to the north, is more particularly known by the name of Taurus, a name which in several languages appears to have one common root, and simply signifies *mountain*. The elevation of this chain must be considerable, since Cicero affirms that it was impassable to armies before the month of June on account of the snow.§ Diodorus details the frightful ravines and precipices which it is necessary to cross in going from Cilicia into Cappadocia.‖ Modern travellers who have crossed more to the west of this chain, now called Ala-Dagh, represent it as similar to that of the Apennines and Mount Hemus.¶ It sends off to the west several branches, some of which terminate on the shores of the Mediterranean, as the Cragus, and the Masicystes of the ancients, in Lycia; the others, greatly inferior in elevation, extend to the coasts of the Archipelago opposite the islands of Cos and Rhodes. To the east, Mount Amanus, now the Almadagh, a detached branch of the Taurus, separates

Mount Amanus.

* Strabo, II. p. 50.

† Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire Ottoman, VI. 388.

‡ Tournefort, Letter XXI. Paul Lucas, deuxième voyage, I. c. 21.

§ Cicero, Epist. ad Famil. XV. 4. &c.

‖ Diod. XIV. 20. Herodian, &c.

¶ Paul Lucas, deuxième Voyage, I. 35. trois. Voyage, I. p. 184.

Cilicia from Syria, having only two narrow passes, the one towards the Euphrates, the other close by the sea;* the first answers to the Amanian defiles (Pylæ Amanicæ) of the ancients, the other to the defiles of Syria. The latter, with their perpendicular and peaked rocks, are the only ones that have been visited by modern travellers. BOOK XXVI.

Two other chains of mountains are sent off from the western part of the central plateau. The one is the Baba-Dagh of the moderns, which formed the *Tmolus*, the *Messogis*, and the *Sipylus* of the ancients, and which terminates towards the islands of Samos and Chios; the other, extending in a north-west direction, presents more elevated summits, among which are the celebrated Ida and Olympus (of Mysia.) Lastly, the northern side of the plateau is propelled towards the Black Sea, and gives rise to the chain of the Olgassys, now Elkas-Dagh, a chain which fills with its branches all the space between the Sangarius and the Halys. The summits retain their snow until August.† Throughout the ranges of mountains which we have just described, limestone rocks appear to predominate. The ancients highly extol the marbles of Asia Minor, but from the Sangarius to the Halys we meet with nothing but granite rocks. Earthquakes have often ravaged this fine peninsula; thirteen towns were destroyed in one day in the reign of Tiberius. The ancients distinguished one district as remarkably abounding in traces of volcanic eruptions; the district called Katakekauméné, that is, the burnt country, "where very often the earth emits flames, and where the vine grows on a soil entirely composed of ashes." This focus of the volcanic shocks which Anatolia so frequently experiences, ought to lie to the east of Thyatira. Modern travellers have not visited it. Northern and western chains. Olympus. Earthquakes. Extinguished volcanoes.

The peninsula of Asia Minor contains only rivers of inconsiderable size, though very celebrated. Those which Rivers.

* Xenophon, Cyri. Exped. I. 4. Arrian, &c. &c. Otter, Travels, I. p. 82, (in German.) Pococke, II. p. 257, (Idem.)

† M. Fourcade, manuscript notes.

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run south towards the Mediterranean are the shortest and the most rapid. The Pyramus in Cilicia, now named the Seihoun, as it flows beyond Taurus, passes through a narrow defile, the angles on the opposite sides of which so exactly correspond, as to resemble a production of art.* The Ægean Sea receives more considerable rivers; among these may be distinguished the winding Meander now Meinder, a deep though small river,† which often undermines its banks. This in former times gave rise to a singular custom; the proprietors who suffered from these ravages, instituted a process against the river, and received indemity from the toll established along its course. We must also notice the Pactolus and the Hermus, which rolled down grains of gold, but which even in the time of Strabo were neglected; lastly, the Simois and the Scamander, immortalized by the author of the Iliad. The larger rivers of Asia Minor flow into the Black Sea; the Sakara or the Aiala of the Turks‡ is the Sangarius of the Ancients; the Bartin or Parthenius still flows as in the days of Strabo, between flowery meadows and smiling slopes. The Halys, now the Kisil-Irmak, the southern branch of which Pliny alone has distinctly pointed out, when he represents it as taking its rise from the base of Taurus in Cilicia, and directing its course from south to north, appeared to Tournefort, who saw it near its mouth, to be as wide as the Seine at Paris.§ It has only one mouth, although modern maps give it several.‖ The Jekil-Irmak or the Iris, is the next in size to the Halys; but the other rivers that fall into the Euxine Sea are remarkable only for the rapidity of their course.

The Meander.

The Halys.

Lakes.

Asia Minor contains a great many lakes which are destitute of outlets, and the waters of which are more or less impregnated with salt. Ancient geography has partially informed us of their existence, and modern accounts do not lead us to believe that the information is beyond the truth.

* Strabo, XIII, 809. Almal.

† Nicetas Chroniates, p. 125, (Corp. Byz.) Tit. Liv. XXXVIII. 13.

‡ Pliny, VI. 2.

§ Tournefort, Let. 21.

‖ M. Fourcade, notes MSS.

The lake Tazla, which is about thirty miles in length, presents a vast plain covered with crystals of salt.* That of Akshehr is upon the same plateau. In passing the most elevated ridge of Taurus, another plateau, near Beysheri, contains two extensive lakes, the waters of which are bitter and saponaceous.†

Climate.

Both the ancients and moderns are loud in praise of the climate of Asia Minor; it enjoys a mildness of temperature which is not experienced on the European side of the Archipelago. The heat of summer is greatly moderated by the numerous chains of high mountains; and the vicinity of three seas diminishes the intensity of the colder season. It is unquestionably to this happy region, that what Hippocrates‡ has said of Asia in general peculiarly applies: "There is scarcely any variation of heat and cold known here, the two temperatures are so delightfully blended together." The southern coasts, however, are liable to oppressive heats, whilst the shores of the Black Sea experience occasionally an excess of moisture.

Productions.

The ancients were better acquainted with the wealth of Asia Minor than we are.§ The moderns, however, give a very brilliant, though incomplete description of it. The coasts of this peninsula furnish nearly the same productions as Southern Greece; olives, orange, myrtle, laurel, turpentine, mastic, and tamarind trees adorn the sinuous banks of the Meander, and the delightful shores of Scio and of Rhodes; whilst the wild vine climbs to the summits of the trees, hanging in graceful festoons, and forming a thousand little verdant grottos. The plane spreads with greater majesty its vast shade over a soil bestrewed with odoriferous flowers. Even the cold heights of Taurus are crowned with cypress, juniper, and savin trees. The *quercus infectoria*, the oak which produces the gall nuts used for dy-

Vegetables of the Western Coasts.

* Tavernier, vol. I. b. I. ch. 7. Pococke, III. 134.

† Paul Lucas, deuxième Voyage, Vol. I. c. 33. trois. Voyage, T. I. p. 172.

‡ Hippoc. de Aere, aqua, et locis.

§ Strabo. B. XII. XIII. XIV.

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ing is met with every where from the Bosphorus to Syria, and to the frontiers of Persia.*

The interior.

There are vast plains in the interior, which produce only saline plants, or wormwood and sage.† Often by the side of dreary salt marshes there are other plains less moist, which derive their verdure entirely from two kinds of broom, the *spartium junceum* and the *spinosum*; asses and sheep feed now, as formerly, in these barren regions.‡ Some of the mountainous districts towards the east contain subterranean fires, whilst the neighbouring soil is inundated with cold and stagnant water. Upon the banks of the river Euphrates, olives and all kinds of fruit trees again

Caramania

make their appearance. The burning coasts of Caramania partake of the vegetation of maritime Syria. Rich gums exude from the trees, among which is the styrax which yields the ladanum. The ancients procured from hence their

Coasts of the Black Sea.

wood for ship building. Other fruits and other plants cover the shores of the Black Sea; there oaks and fir predominate. This coast is the orchard of Constantinople and Chersos. There are entire woods of walnut trees, apricot, plum, and, still more abundantly, cherry trees.—This last owes its name to the town Cerasus. The plains which border the Halys, the Sangarius, and the Meander, afford very rich pasture.

Animals.

We know very little of the animal kingdom in Asia Minor: some authors allege that it is now inferior to that of Europe. The beef is scarce and indifferent; the mutton somewhat better. Kid's flesh is esteemed a delicate food. The horses, which are very strong and fleet, seem to be descended from the ancient Cappadocian breed. The goats of Angora are distinguished for the length and fineness of their hair, as are also the cats of that district. The antelopes of Syria sometimes stray beyond Mount Taurus, and may then meet the Ibex which comes from the heights of Caucasus. Their great enemies are the

* Olivier, I. p. 253.

† P. Belon, Observations, &c. CXII.

‡ Strabo, B. XII, passim. Pliny, XVI. c. 37, XIX. c. I. &c.

jackalls, wolves, hyenas, and bears; but it is very doubtful whether the lion is still to be seen in Asia Minor. Swans continue to frequent the banks of the Cayster. Red partridges cover the coasts of the Hellespont; all kinds of game abound in this half cultivated country; upon Mount Taurus there are wild sheep.*

Minerals.

The copper mines of Tocat, that of Kourch, near Kastamouni, and that of Gumish-Khana, not far from Trebisonde, are still celebrated. All the chains in the neighbourhood of the Black Sea exhibit indications of excellent copper. But they no longer work the cinnabar of Mount Olgassys, the gold of Lydia, the rock crystal of Pontus, nor the valuable alabaster and the coral marble of the central provinces. We know less than the ancients of the mineralogy of this wide country. It is in Strabo that we must look for the description of the Corycian cavern, a romantic grotto of Cilicia, the spot near Hephestion in Lycia, whence issued an inflammable gas; the petrifying springs of Hierapolis, and many other natural curiosities. We have noticed these in our analysis of the geography of this writer;† for, in the absence of all information from travellers, how could we affirm that all these remarkable objects still exist in the same state? It is, however, probable that they do.‡ Chandler confirms the accounts of Strabo concerning the hot springs of Hierapolis or Pambouk; he found a mass of rock formed by the tufa or soft sand-stone which these waters deposit; it resembles an immense cascade which has been suddenly frozen or converted into stone. Near the same place is the celebrated cave whose pernicious exhalations were remarked by the ancients.

Topography.

We shall now describe the principal places of this tract of country, of which we have been giving a general sketch. We shall set out from the banks of the rapid and violent

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1753-1773, &c.

† See the volume containing the history of Geography; the volume first of the original work, and intended to be the last of the present translation.

‡ Chandler's Travels in Asia Minor.

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Tcharuk, or Batoum, which is the Akampsis of Arrian, and the Absarus of Ptolemy.* It forms the boundary of the pashalick of Tarabosan or Trebisond. The first Turkish town on this side which is worthy of notice, is Rizé. It exports a great quantity of linen, manufactured copper, and fruits. Of and Surmineh enjoy a share of this commerce. Then comes the celebrated city of Trebisonde, which the Turks name Tarabasan. It is the ancient Trapezus, built by a colony of the Greeks from Sinope. It is mentioned by Xenophon, in his retreat of the ten thousand. It acquired importance under Trajan, and still more under Justinian.† It was afterwards the capital of an empire founded by a branch of the Comnenuses of Constantinople, who were dispossessed of it in 1452 by Mahomet II. Although it has lost its ancient splendour, it is still considerable, and contains from 20 to 30,000 inhabitants; but the Greeks are now emigrating from it. The articles of exportation are copper from the mines of Gumishkhané, wax, leather, fruits, and a little wine.‡ Two bays on the coast present to us successively Traboli and Kerasounte, which carry on the same commerce as Trebisonde. Their territories produce a little silk. The inhabitants of Unieh, the ancient Œnoe, occupying a barren territory, which however produces the fine rock alum of Kahissar, carry on a coasting trade either with the Russian ports, or with those of the Abassians. The ancient Amisus, one of the residences of Mithridates the Great, is now a small town, named Samsoun. It has a haven for ships, whence are exported the copper of Tocat, silks and fruits, the linen of Amasia, and even the cottons of Adana, which are carried into the Crimea.§ Going up the river, now named Jekil-Irmak, and anciently the Iris, we meet with Amasia, a town interesting to the geographer, being the birth-place of

Rizé.

Trebisonde.

Kerasounte.

Unieh.

Samsoun.

Amasia.

* Mannert, Geographie des Grecs et des Romains, V. p. II. p. 362. *sqq.*

† Eustath. ad Dionys. Perieg. V. 687. Notit. Imp. c. 27. Procop. de Ædificiis, III. 7.

‡ M. Fourcade, notes manuscrites. Compare Peyssonal and Tournefort.

§ M. Fourcade, notes manuscrites.

Strabo. It is situated among steep rocks, but the environs produce excellent fruit and good wine.* More to the south, in a deep valley, is the town of Tocat, containing 40,000 inhabitants, and surrounded with orchards and vineyards.† The buildings are two stories high, and each house has its fountain; the streets are well paved, a very rare thing in that country. There is a manufacture of blue morocco; but the trade is principally in silk, of which a great many stuffs are made, copper utensils, and printed calicoes, which are brought from Bassora by the caravans. Tocat is the ancient Comana Pontica: it is dependant upon the pashalick of Siwas. The town of Zile, anciently Zela, like some others in Pontus, is situated upon an artificial hill.‡

Tocat.

The mountains which extend from Tocat towards Trebisonde, where they separate the basin of the Euxine sea from that of the Euphrates, support in their verdant valleys, shaded with forests of chesnut trees, several tribes of wandering Kurds,§ whose pastoral life reminds us of those ancient colonies which Xenophon and Strabo place in these countries, and of which they are probably the remains. The name of the ancients, Thianni or Tzani, is preserved in that of the canton of Dshianik. The mountains in the interior of this canton have, on their summits, rings of iron, to which the inhabitants say the cables of vessels were attached at the time when the Black Sea, from the want of an outlet, stood at that high level.‖

Mountains.

Historical Curiosities.

The ingenuity of the ancient Chalybes or Chaldæi, in working metals, continues to distinguish the natives of the mountainous region, which still retains the name of Tcheldir, or Keldir.

Passing the river Halys, we enter the district, or *mousselimat* of Kastamouni, which corresponds to the ancient ma-

* Strabo, XII. p. 839. Almel. Tavernier, I. c. I. p. 9.

† Jackson in Sprengel, Library of Travels, (in German,) VIII. p. 144.

‡ Tavernier, I. c. 7. p. 102.

§ Tournefort, Voyage, Lett. XXI. p. 175.

‖ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1789.

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ritime Paphlagonia. The city of Kastamouni or Kastambol, though inhabited by Turks, has several manufactures flourishing within its walls, particularly that of copper utensils. The population amounts to about 50,000 souls.*

Kastamouni.

Pompeïopolos.

The ancient Pompeïopolos, for a long time the capital of this country, has lately been discovered in the present town of Tasch-Kouprou.† The coast from the Halys to the Bosphorus has long been incorrectly delineated on the maps. The observations of M. Beauchamp, have at last nearly determined its true bearings. The supposed gulf of Samsoun has disappeared, and the coast in general extends an entire degree farther to the north than the charts of d'Anville represent.

Sinopé.

Before we arrive at Cape Karampé, the most northern point of Asia Minor, we find the celebrated town of Sinopé, situated upon an isthmus, sheltered from the north by a peninsula: on the east there is an excellent road for ships, with timber yards for the imperial Turkish navy. This town, which the emigrations of the Greeks have reduced to a population of 5000 souls, exports rice, fruits, skins, and planks: the trade in fish, at one time immense, is now very inconsiderable. Inchboli is the seaport of Kastamouni: it exports building timber, copper, and hemp. Amastro, the ancient Amastris, and Erekli, or Heraclea, have preserved nothing but an illustrious name.

The Bosphorus opens before us like a majestic river, having its banks adorned with villages, castles, and country-seats.

Scutari.

At the termination of this strait stands Scutari, which, with a population of 30,000 inhabitants, would be considered a large and fine city, were it not situated opposite to Constantinople. Upon the first gulf of the Propontis, we find the port belonging to the town of Isnikmid, that is, the ancient Nicomedia in Bithynia, where the Emperor Constantine died: it is still a considerable place. This is more than can be said of Isnik, the an-

Isnikmid.

Isnik.

* M. Fourcade, Memoir sur Kastamouni.

† Id. Memoir, sur Pompeïopolis, Annales des Voyages, XIV.

cient Nicæa, celebrated as the meeting place of the first general council; but now reduced to two or three hundred houses, inhabited solely by Jews, who manufacture earthen ware or sell silk. The Propontis is surrounded with celebrated ruins, amongst which those of Cyzicus still bear testimony to the grandeur and magnificence of one of the first commercial cities in ancient times.* Here the heights of Mount Olympus, covered with snow till the middle of summer, naturally arrest our attention. At the foot of this natural pyramid stands the city of Boorsa, Brousa, or Prusa, which owes its origin to Hannibal,† and which was the capital of the Ottoman Empire, previously to the taking of Constantinople. It is still one of the most beautiful cities in the empire, situated in a fertile and finely wooded plain, inclosed within the immense ridges of Olympus.‡ The most skilful artisans of the Turks reside here, and the satins and tapestry of this town are highly valued. The fine silk, which is obtained there in large quantities, is still insufficient to employ the manufactories established in the town: the deficiency is supplied from Persia. The city of Bursa, properly so called, occupies an eminence which commands a fertile plain, abounding in hot springs. This city, inhabited by about 50,000 souls, contains 140 mosques, two of which are magnificent, and it is adorned with a prodigious number of fountains. Bursa has for its sea-port Montagna, commonly called Moudania, from whence it exports a great quantity of saltpetre, white wine, and fruits, and a variety of manufactured goods.

Cyzicus.

Boorsa.

We come now to the central parts of Asia Minor, which have been long infested by troops of Turcomans. Of late, however, a kind of order, or at least of calm, has arisen from anarchy itself; two great feudatory families, that of Kara-Osman-Oglou, and that of Tchapan-Oglou,

Anarchical state of Anatolia.

* Paul Lucas, second Voyage, I. c. 4. Pococke, part III. vol. II. c. 23.

† Pliny, V. 22. (notwithstanding Strabo, &c.)

‡ Kinnear's Travels in Asia Minor.

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after having successively acquired vast dominions in Asia Minor, have re-established tranquillity by substituting their own authority in the room of that of the Porte, whose supremacy they recognise no farther than their own interests happen to require. The states of Kara-Osman, or the Prince of the Valleys,* comprehend ancient Mysia, Lydia, and a part of Bithynia; they extend from the Sangarius to the Meander. The dominion of Tchapan-Oglou comprises Galatia and Paphlagonia, or the country between the Sangarius and the Iris. The pasha, or beglerbeg of Anatolia, residing at Kutaïeh, reigns over nearly the whole of ancient Phrygia.

Kutaïah.

The route from Broosa through Kutaïah and Konieh in Caramania traverses chiefly the plateau of salt lakes destitute of outlet, of which we have already spoken. Kutaïah, the ancient Cotyæum, is a considerable town, embellished with mosques, caravanseras, and baths, and surrounded with gardens, vineyards, and walks. It contains more than 10,000 houses, and probably more than 50,000 inhabitants. The town is built on the side of a hill; the houses are handsome, and the castle, occupying the position of Cotyæum, appears to have been a place of great strength.† Its fertile territory produces excellent fruit, and abundance of gall nuts.‡ Kara Hissar, famous for its trade in opium, and its manufacture of black felt, is a subject of dispute amongst geographers; one of the most learned of them has lately asserted that it was the ancient Celænæ.§ Aksheer, a considerable town, answers, according to d'Anville, to the ancient Antiochia ad Pisidian; and according to Mannert, to Tyriæum; the neighbouring mountain being to the west, whilst the plain, fertile in corn and fruits, lies to the east.‖ The opinion of the German author appears to merit

Kara Hissar.

* In Turkish, Dairéh-Beg, according to Seetzen.

† Kinnear's Travels, or Murray's Historical Account of Travels in Asia, Vol. III. p. 178.

‡ Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire Ottoman, VI. p. 408, (in 8vo.)

§ Mannert, Geographie des Grecs et Romains, V. part iii. p. 119, 125. Compare Pococke, &c.

‖ Olivier, VI. 396.

the preference. Konieh, the ancient Iconium, is now the residence of a pasha, who commands the northern part of Caramania, a province in which are comprehended ancient Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, the greater part of Cappadocia, and Cilicia. This town, important when it was the residence of the sultans of Roum, now reckons only from 15,000 to 20,000 inhabitants. Here a number of antique materials are formed into modern edifices. A small river loses itself among the gardens which surround the town. To the east are extensive marshes.* The town of Caraman, which has given its name to the province, is not far from the source of the southern branch of the Halys. It is a mean looking place, but still covers an extensive area, and contains 3000 families occupied in the cotton manufacture.

Konieh.

Caraman.

In descending this branch of the Halys, in order to approach Angora, we should examine whether Akserai is the ancient Archelaïs; whether Kirshehr, upon the confluence of the Erkurus, corresponds to Nazianzus, surnamed Dio-Cæsarea; whether the river Chaux, upon which is now situate the town of Nikidé, is the Cappadox of Pliny: but this route being little frequented, these questions will probably remain long undetermined.

Towns upon the upper Halys.

A road which is better known will conduct us from Broosa, or from Nicæa, to Toca, through the flourishing states of Tchapan-Oglou, which begin at Beibazar, a town situated upon the river Sangarius. As we advance to the east, we discover, in a very elevated plain, Angora. It is to the fineness of the hair of its goats that this city is indebted for its fame and its wealth. It is supposed to contain a population of 80,000 souls. (Dr. Pococke made them 100,000; Mr. Kinnear only 20,000.) The inhabitants are milder, and are better governed than in any other town of Natolia. They are chiefly Armenians. The streets are wide, and paved with blocks of

Angora.

* Abulfeda, Busching's Geographical Magazine, V. 307. Otter, Travels in Turkey, I. c. 7.

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granite. Some fine remains of antiquity are to be seen, amongst others, the celebrated temple in honour of the Emperor Augustus, from whose reign the greatness of the town may be dated. Half way between Angora and Tocat lies

Ieuzgatt. the town Ieuzgatt, the residence of Tchapan Oglou, which, though lately in ruins, is seen daily assuming a finer and more populous appearance.*

Ascending the eastern branch of the Kisil-Irmak, the branch which answers to the Halys of Herodotus and Strabo, we arrive at Siwas, the ancient Sebastia, (in Pontus,)

Siwas. now the residence of a pasha, whose dominions extend, if not *de facto*, at least *de jure*, over all the countries between the Euphrates and Mount Argeus, as far north as the banks of the Iris. Some modern travellers† assert that Siwas contains 1000 houses, others 4000; how then can geographical writers be expected to agree? It is a dirty ill-built place. The pashalick of Siwas has, by a caprice of fortune, retained the sounding name of Room, or the country of the Romans.

The basin of the eastern Halys touches on the south side that in which flows the Karasou, that is, the Black River, the Melas of the ancients. At the head of this val-

Kaisariéh. ley may be seen Kaisariéh, the ancient Cesarea, the capital of Cappadocia, a large town situated at the base of Mount Ardehis. A traveller, who has been undeservedly decried, found in the environs of this town all the mountains perforated with grottoes, which have probably served as summer residences to the ancient inhabitants of the country.‡

Curiosities of the environs. Such abodes were common to many nations. It is more difficult implicitly to admit the statement of this traveller concerning the 200,000 little pyramids, each having doors and windows, which he assures us are to be seen not far from Cesarea near Yrkup. But must we always reject whatever exhibits the appearance of the marvellous? It

* Itinéraires Manuscrites de Messrs. Trezel, Favier, &c.

† M. de Gardene, Journal, &c. p. 113. M. Trezel, Itineraires manuscrites.

‡ Paul Lucas, second voyage, c. 18.

contains 25,000 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade in cotton, which is produced abundantly in its neighbourhood.

The country along the banks of the Melas furnishes the wandering hordes of the Turcomans with scanty pasturage. The villages appear like Oases in the desert. But as we approach the Euphrates, the eye delights to repose on the gardens, the orchards, and the groves of poplars, which surround Malatiah, the ancient Melitena, a town containing from 12000 to 15000 houses.* It was the principal town of the Lesser Armenia; a country through which, in the middle ages, the great commercial road from Europe to India passed,† and which, in modern times, has been traversed from south to north by not more than two travellers.‡ It may therefore be reckoned almost a *terra incognita*. We know that in going from Malatiah to Ayas, the ancient Issus, we pass through a small province, named by the Turks Dulgadir Ili, and governed by a pasha, who resides at Merasche; but whilst d'Anville places that town to the south-west of Mount Amanus, wishing to identify it with the ancient Germanicia, an eye-witness represents it as situated to the north-east of that chain, and within view of the Euphrates.§ Cilicia, or the coast of Caramania, is scarcely better known. The testimonies of Strabo and Otter prove that the most of the rivers along this coast take their rise to the north of the chain of Taurus, which they pass through narrow outlets. The plateau in which these rivers have their source, between Taurus and Anti-Taurus, represents, in part, the ancient Cataonia. It is in these mountains that the wandering Caramanians, and even the inhabitants of the towns, seek for shelter from the summer heats, which prevail in great severity in

Malatiah.

Merasche or Marasch.

Coasts of Caramania.

* M. Trezel. Itiner. Manusc. Comp. Strabo, etc.

† Pegoletti.

‡ Paul Lucas, Premier Voyage au Levant, c. 24. Schellinger, Persiche und Ostindische Reise. Nuremberg, 1716. p. 68. *sqq.* (in German.)

§ Schellinger, loc. cit.

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the flat maritime regions. Those heights are crowned with cedars, whilst the shores of the sea are covered with entire forests of laurels and myrtles.* Adana, the residence of a pacha, and Sis, where the kings of the Lesser Armenia long held their court, are places of trifling importance. Tarsus, the ancient capital of Cilicia, and once the literary rival of Athens and Alexandria, is now only a town containing 30,000 inhabitants, and enjoying a pretty extensive foreign trade; but the cool waters of the Cydnus, so dangerous to Alexander, still flow through those fertile plains where Sardanapalus erected a statue of himself, with this inscription: "Enjoy the pleasures of life; all else is nothing." Cilicia, called Trachea, or the rugged, now forms the district of Itchil, subject to the Mousselim or governor of Cyprus. The pasha of Kutaïeh reigns over the Tekieh, or the coasts of the ancient Pamphylia and Lycia. Satalia, situated upon a dangerous gulf, below a forest of lemon and orange trees, has a flourishing trade, and reckons more than 30,000 inhabitants. Upon the picturesque shores of Lycia,† the magnificent ruins of Myra, now Cacamo, attest the opulence of the age of Adrian and of Trajan; the Necropolis, or place of interment, has of itself the appearance of a city.‡ In the interior, which answers to ancient Pisidia, accident has preserved to a town inhabited by Turks, the name of Sparta or Isparté; it is the remains of the ancient Sagalessus, which boasted of a Lacedemonian origin, and the imposing ruins of which are found in the neighbourhood.§ This country, which is seldom visited, is an upland plain, with one or more lakes, the waters of which are carried off by the river Duden, which often disappears in a subterranean cavern.‖

Tarsus.

Satalia.

Cacamo.

Isparté.

* P. Belon, Observations, etc. CVII. and CIX.

† M. Corancez, consul general, Itineraire manuscrit.

‡ Robert Ainslie, Views in the Ottoman Empire, &c. London, 1803.

§ Paul Lucas, Seconde Voyage, t. I. c. 34. Troisième Voyage, t. I. p. 181. plate I. VIII.

‖ Chandler's Travels in Asia Minor.

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Western Coasts.

The western coasts of Asia, which are more frequently visited, would of themselves furnish matter for an interesting volume. It was here that arts and letters embellished the cities of Doris, of Ionia, and Eolis; it is here that the melancholy ruins of Halicarnassus, Miletus, and Ephesus, arrest the footsteps of the classic traveller. But if it be true that the ruins of Ephesus are found to the south-west of Ayasluk,* the site of the celebrated temple of Diana is not yet determined. Neither the learning of Chandler, nor the ingenuity of Choiseul, has been able to decide this question. It is probable that they should have sought for the remains to the north of Ayasaluk, (which stands on the first site of Ephesus, before the buildings of Lysimachus,) in the marshy plains watered by the Cayster.† Doubts also are entertained as to the situation of ancient Miletus. Spon, the traveller having found at Palatsha certain inscriptions bearing the name of the Milesians, imagined that he had discovered the ruins of the ancient city.‡ Chandler, setting out upon such data, sought in vain for the Latmian Gulf, with the cities of Myus, Heraclea, and others situated upon its shores. He supposed that this gulf was represented by the lake Ufa-Bassi, and that the low grounds which separate that lake from the sea, owed their formation to the accumulated deposits of the Meander.§ This hypothesis, which is not very intelligibly stated by its author, has found a formidable opponent in an ingenious German, who considers the ruins of Palatsha as those of Myus, a small town incorporated with Miletus, the inhabitants of which, on that account, were called Milesians. This learned man thinks that Ufa-Bassi is the lake which, according to Pausanias, was formed by the sinking down of the soil

Ruins of Ephesus.

Ruins of Miletus.

Latmian Gulf.

* Hadgi-Khalfah, Géographie Turque, p. 1835—1846.

† Poleni, Dissertation sur le temple de Diane, dans les Mémoires de l'Academie de Cortone; et Mannert, Géog. des Grecs et des Romains, VI. p. III. p. 305—313.

‡ Spon and Wheeler, Travels, p. 358.

§ Chandler's Travels, c. 43, et.

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near Myus.* The ruins of Miletus and the Latmian gulf should be sought for more to the south and the west. But the modifications which a skilful French geographer† has recently introduced into the plans of Chandler, and the very accurate maps of M. de Choiseul-Gouffier, seem to establish the fact that alluvial additions have been made to the land, posterior to those mentioned by Strabo and Pausanias. The lake of Ufa-Bassi appears, from decided marks, to be the ancient Latmian Gulf; the ruins of Miletus, however, must lie farther to the west than Palatsha. This interesting question does not seem to us to have yet received an exact and perfect solution.

Modern Towns.

The modern towns of these fine regions have but little importance. Melasso contains many ruins which belong to the ancient *Mylasch*. Guzel-Hissar, the ancient *Magnesia ad Mæandrum*, has still a considerable commerce. But in ascending the picturesque valley of the Meander, the traveller discovers the ruins of the rich and magnificent city of Laodicea, now the abode of foxes. Tireh possesses valuable manufactories. The confined port of Scala Nuova is much frequented, and this town which, in some measure, supplies the place of the city of Ephesus, displays, in a kind of amphitheatre, its mosques intermingled with beautiful cypresses.

Smyrna.

Smyrna, the queen of the cities of Anatolia, and extolled by the ancients under the title of "the lovely, the crown of Ionia, the ornament of Asia," braves the reiterated efforts of conflagrations and earthquakes. Ten times destroyed, she has ten times risen from her ruins with new splendour. According to a very common Grecian system, the principal buildings were erected on the face of a hill fronting the sea. The hill supplied marble, while its slope afforded a place for the seats rising gradually above each other in the stadium, or great theatre for

* Mannert, Géographie des Grecs et des Romains, VI. p. III. p. 252—266.

† Barbié du Bocage. Recherches sur les atterrissements du Méandre, dans le Mag. Encycl. de M. Millin, vol. IV. p. 74, and his notes upon Chandler.

the exhibition of games. Almost every trace of the ancient city, however, has been obliterated during the contests between the Greek empire and the Ottomans, and afterwards by the ravages of Timur, in 1402. The foundation of the stadium remains, but the area is sown with grain. There are only a few vestiges of the theatre; and the castle which crowns the hill is chiefly a patch work executed by John Comnenus on the ruins of the old one, the walls of which, of immense strength and thickness, may still be discovered. Smyrna, in the course of its revolutions, has slid down, as it were, from the hill to the sea. It has, under the Turks, completely regained its populousness. Its mosques and other buildings are very handsome, being built chiefly from the marble of the ancient structures. The central situation of Smyrna, and the excellence of its port, attract a concourse of merchants of all nations, by sea, and in caravans by land. The exports from this city are silks, goat and camel's hair, cottons, embroidered muslins, morocco skins, coloured camlets, wool, wax, gall-nuts, currants, amber, lapis lazuli, and a variety of drugs, as musk, galbanum, rhubarb, and various gums. We find there also a variety of carpets, besides pearls, diamonds, emeralds, rubies, and other precious stones. Smyrna, in short, is the great emporium of the Levant. This city contains 120,000 inhabitants, though frequently and severely visited by the plague.

Continuation of the Western Coasts.

From the Meander to the Propontis, order, tranquillity, and increasing opulence bear witness to the excellent administration of the family of Kara-Osman, who, for sixty years, have reigned with almost absolute authority. The husbandmen sow their seed, and gather in their harvests in peace. The Greeks have, in the ancient Eolis, schools where Homer and Thucydides are read.* The Turcomans, whose abodes are near the sources of the Hermus, now called the Sarabat, are employed in agriculture. If the residence of Crœsus can no longer be recognized in the village of Sart, other places preserve some vestiges of

* Choiseul-Gouffier, Voyage Pittoresque de la Grece, vol. II.

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their ancient grandeur. Magnisa and Philadelphia, called by the Turks Alla-Shehr, are flourishing in consequence of their extensive commerce. Immense crops of the finest cotton of Asia enrich Akhissar, the ancient Thyatira, and Kirk-Agatch, a newly-built town. Bergamo, the ancient Pergamus, presents to our view magnificent ruins. Phokia, or Phocéa still possesses its excellent harbour.—The little peninsula which forms the ancient kingdom of Priam has been minutely explored by various learned travellers; but they have not agreed in fixing the localities of the individual places celebrated in the immortal work of Homer. Chevalier, and others, have supposed that Troy must have occupied the site of a village called Roonanbashi, and there he thought he found the sources of the Scamander. Dr. Clarke found in that place not two fountains merely, one hot and one cold, as had been said, but numerous fountains all warm, raising the thermometer to 62° of Fahrenheit. They do not form the source of the Scamander, which lies forty miles in the interior. Dr. Clarke found, on entering the plain of Troy, first the Mender, which its name and every other circumstance clearly fixed as the Scamander. He found also the Thymbrius, under the modern appellation of Thymbroek, though other inquirers conceive it to be the Simois. This last he thought he recognized in the Calliphat Osmak, which runs into the Scamander by a sluggish stream across an extensive plain, and the plain thus becomes that of Simois, on which were fought the great battles recorded in the Iliad. The Ilium of the age of Strabo, we know was situated near the sea, and he says that it was four miles in a certain direction from the original city. In this distance and direction, Dr. Clarke discovered two spots marked by ruins, which, from different circumstances, seem very likely to have been old and new Troy.* The grandeur of the scenery, viewed from this plain, is almost indescribable; Samothrace, on one side, rearing behind Imbrus its snow-clad summit, shining bright, and generally on a cloudless sky; while, on the

Site of Troy.

* Clarke's Travels.

other side, Garganus, the highest of the chain of Ida, rises to an equal elevation. These scenes are well fitted to impart the most feeling interest to the descriptions of Homer, when read or remembered on the spot. Whatever difficulty may exist as to the minutiæ, all the prominent features of Homer's picture are incontestibly visible; the Hellespont, the isle of Tenedos, the plain, the river, still inundating its banks, and the mountain whence it issues. A fertile plain, and a mountain abruptly rising from it, are two features which are usually combined in the sites of ancient cities. From the one, the citizens drew part of their subsistence, while the other became the citadel to which they retired on the approach of danger. The ruins of Abydos, on the shore of the Hellespont, lie farther to the north than the Castle of Asia, a fortress of small strength. Lamsaki is only a suburb of the ancient Lampsacus, the ruins of which have been lately discovered at Tchardak.*

Adjoining islands.

Having finished the description of the peninsula of Asia Minor, we come to explore that chain of islands which forms a border to it upon the west. Here every rock has its history, every island has had its renowned age, its heroes, and its men of genius.

Tenedos, Mytilene.

Tenedos is still the key of the Hellespont, the Turks having given it the name of Bogtcha-Adassi. From this island, which is rich in wine, we come to Metelin, the ancient Lesbos.† A variety of hills, clad with vines and olive trees, rise around the numerous bays of this island. The mountains of the interior are covered with mastick, turpentine trees, pines of Aleppo and the Cistus. Rivulets flow under the shades of the plane tree. The wine, the figs, and the women of Lesbos, still preserve their ancient reputation. The island has about 25,000 inhabitants, 8000 of which live in the town of Castro. Passing by Karabooroom, and its savage inhabitants, we come to the delightful island of Scio or Chios, which is indebted to its mastick tree for the enjoyment of a kind of liberty,

Scio.

* Castellan, Lettres sur la Grece, etc. I.

† Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire Ottoman, II. 84—102.

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in consequence of being assigned as the demesne of the sultan-mother. Industry, accordingly, the offspring of liberty, has transformed into a garden this island, although in a great measure composed of granite and calcareous rocks. M. Olivier computed the population to be about 110,000, almost all Greeks, of whom 30,000 reside in the capital, which bears the same name as the island. Lemons, oranges, and cedars, together with an intermixture of fig-trees and pomegranates, perfume the air; while roses grow in as great numbers as thistles in other regions. Crops of barley are raised, and oil and muscat wine are made. Neither the cotton nor the silk which grows in the island is sufficient to employ the industry of the inhabitants, who can imitate all the stuffs of Lyons and India. The women of Scio, handsome as the Grecian statues, disfigure their persons by their whimsical dress.*

Samos.

After having traversed the gulf of Scala Nuova, we reach the large port of Vathi in Samos, an island of about half the extent of Scio, and inhabited it is said by not more than 12,000 souls. The soil however is very fertile, and produces muscat wine, oranges, oil, and silk; fine marble is also found in the island. Samos presents to antiquarians the superb remains of a temple of Juno. It is the only island of the Archipelago which has the character of containing ugly women. Megalo-Chori is the chief place in modern times. Mount Kertis retains snow on its summit during the greater part of the summer.†

We pass in front of Nicaria, rich in building timber, but in other respects barren; it is inhabited by a few Greeks, very poor, and very proud, who pretend they are sprung from the imperial blood of the Constantines, and who never sleep in a bed even when they can get one.

Patmos.

Neither shall we stop at Patmos, which one of its inhabitants described about 180 years ago as abounding in wines, corn, and figs, adorned with myrtles and arbuti, and con-

* Tournefort, I. Lettre 9. Olivier, II. 103, *sqq.*

† Joseph Géorgirènes, Archbishop of Samos, Description of Samos, Nicaria, Patmos, &c. London, 1809. (Paulus, Magasin des Voyages au Levant, V. 273.)

taining about sixteen or seventeen villages;* but since that time it has greatly degenerated. Lero, with a large port, Calimno, which produces excellent honey, and other small islands, lie to the south of Samos. We now come to the birth place of Hippocrates, Cos, a name now disfigured into Stanco. This island presents to the view fine plantations of lemon trees, intermixed with stately maples; it has given its name in Latin to a kind of stone which is much used for sharpening tools,† and is commonly call Turkey stone.

Lero, &c.

Cos or Stanco.

Opposite to the extremities of Asia, to the south-west, is the island of Rhodes, celebrated in antiquity for its equitable code of laws, and celebrated also in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries as the residence of the knights of the order of Saint John of Jerusalem. This island, which produces but little grain, still boasts of its fruits, its wines, its wax and honey. It exports soap, fine carpets, and camlets. Rhodes, the capital, is situated on the declivity of a hill facing the sea. It exhibits for a league round, an agreeable mixture of gardens, domes, towers, and churches. It is one of the best fortresses which the Turks possess. It has a very good port, the entrance of which is confined by two rocks, upon which are erected two towers that command the passage. The famous colossus of bronze, which was 180 feet high, appears not to have been placed across the entrance of the great port, but rather upon the bank or pier which divides the interior port, where the knights kept their galleys.‡

Rhodes.

The southern coasts of Asia Minor are almost destitute of islands. The steep declivities of Mount Taurus run close along the shore. Some small rocky islands, such as Castelrosso, are barely detached from the continental precipice by narrow channels. Leaving Cape Chelidoni behind, we now direct our course to the port of Paphos in the island of Cyprus. The moderns have changed the name of that town into Baffa, and that of Amathus into

Castelrosso.

Island of Cyprus.

* Id. ibid. p. 269.

† Thompson's Travels, &c. III. 103.

‡ Diod. Sicil. X. 85. Olivier, III. 347.

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Limasol. An earthquake has destroyed Salamis, and the ruins which bear its name, being nearer the river Pediæus, belong rather to the new town of Constantia, built by the Emperor Constantius.* Other cities have acquired the pre-eminence; Nicosia, in the centre, is become the capital. The commerce of Famagouste, together with that of Larnica and Salines, is not in a flourishing condition. The ancients extol the fertility of this island; the moderns entertain nearly the same opinion of it. The snow, which remains for a long time upon Mount Olympus, (now called the mountain of Saint Croix,) produces a sharp cold in winter, which renders the transition to the heat of summer more insupportable. The most valuable production at present is cotton; we also send thither for turpentine, building timber, oranges, and, most of all, Cyprus wine. Hyacinths, anemonies, ranunculuses, and the single and double narcissus, grow here without cultivation. They deck the mountains, and give the country the appearance of an immense flower garden. But agriculture is neglected; and an unwholesome atmosphere infects some districts, where the method of draining the stagnant water is unknown. It is supposed that the name of Cyprus, or Kyprus, was given to the island from its abounding in copper; or *vice versa*, the metal derived its name from that of the island, copper being called *æs Cyprium*. Besides this metal, it once produced gold, silver, and emeralds. What is called the diamond of Paphos, is a rock crystal which is found near that town. Amianthus, red jasper, and umber, are also exported from this island.

Productions.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Cyprus are a fine race of men; the women, by the vivacity of their large eyes, seem to declare how faithful they still are to the worship of Venus. This island, anciently divided into nine kingdoms, each of which contained several flourishing cities, had perhaps a million of inhabitants; it has now only 83,000. The grand viziers possess it as an appendage to their place; and, to make it as profitable as possible, they let the office

Population.

* Pococke, II. 313, (in German.)

of superintendant or mousselim to the highest bidder.* During the decline of the eastern empire, Cyprus was conquered by Richard the First, king of England, and given to the house of Lusignan, as an English fief, by way of indemnity for the loss of the throne of Jerusalem.† In the fifteenth century the heiress of that house resigned the sovereignty of it in favour of the Venetians, who in 1570 were expelled from it by the Turks; but, a princess of the house of Lusignan having married a Duke of Savoy, the kings of Sardinia still make pretensions to the crowns of Cyprus and Jerusalem.

Remarks.

Here we conclude our topographical sketch of Asia Minor and the neighbouring islands. It has necessarily been rapid, because vast tracts, either quite unknown, or known only from the vague relations of the orientalists, are interposed between the routes of European travellers, routes which are neither sufficiently numerous, nor sufficiently diversified to furnish us with a modern topography equal to that which may be extracted from the Greek and Roman writers.—It would be very easy for us to protract this description by repeating the observations so often made upon the manners of the different nations which inhabit this fine country; but the few details of this kind in which we shall allow ourselves to indulge will be found in a more appropriate place. The Greeks and Arminians who inhabit the commercial towns will occupy our attention when we describe the countries whence they derive their name. The Koords and the Turcomans, whose tribes, sometimes pastoral and sometimes agricultural, are scattered over the interior, will also form the subject of a separate article. Lastly, the Turks, their power and civil policy, come most properly to be noticed after the description of the whole of Turkey in Asia. Here then it only remains for us to compare the ancient and modern divisions, a laborious undertaking, the results of which our readers will find in the subjoined tables.

* Mariti, Travels.

† Æneas Sylvius, Cosmograph. c. 97.

TABLE

OF

THE DIFFERENT APPLICATIONS OF THE NAMES OF

ASIA, ASIA PROPER, AND ASIA MINOR.

Asia, or Asis, a province of Lydia.	A canton comprised between Mount Imolus, Mount Messogis, and the Cayster.*
Asia, a part of the world. — Lower Asia. (ἡ κατω Ασια.)	Pontus, Paphlagonia, Bythinia, Lydia, &c.; Phrygia, Cappadocia, Cilicia, Syria, (Arabia?)
Asia, a part of the world. — Upper Asia (ἡ ανω Ασια.)	Caucasus, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Media, Persia, &c. &c. Sythia, Indiа.†
Asia, kingdom, (called also the kingdom of Pergamus.)	Mysia, Phrygia, Lycaonia, Lydia.‡
Asia, a prætorian province, and afterwards a consular one.	Mysia, Lydia, Ionia, Caria, Phrygia.§
Asia Proper. (ἡ ιδιως καλουμενη Ασια.)	Sometimes synonymous with Prætorian Asia, but commonly taken as comprehending the peninsula as far west as the Halys, and the gulf of Tarsus.‖
Asia, a diocese under Constantine.	Prætorian Asia, together with Lycia, Pamphylia, but excluding the western coasts.¶
Proconsular Asia, same epoch.	The western coasts from Cape Lectum to the environs of Miletus.**
Asia Minor in the fourth century.	All the peninsula which we call Asia Minor.††

* Homer, Iliad, II. v. 462. Dionys. Perieg. V. 836. Herodotus, IV. 45, &c.

† Xenophon and Strabo, passim.

‡ Strabo, XII. 845. (Edi. Almel.) Tit. Liv.

§ Cic. Orat. pro Flacco, cap. 27. Strabo, XIII. 626.

‖ Notit. Imperii. I.

¶ Strabo, II. 188.

** Eunapius in Maximo, p. 101. edit. Plaut. Cod. Theodos. V. tit. 2.

†† Oros. Histor. I. c. 2. Constantin. Porphyrog. de Themat. I. 8. 19.

DIVISIONS OF ASIA MINOR.

I.—*Asia Minor, according to the most usual divisions amongst the ancient Greeks.*

Grand Divisions.	Sub-divisions.	Principal Towns.
Mysia.	Great Mysia.	Pergamus.
	*Theutrania.	
	Æolis.	Cymus.
	Coast of the Pelasgi, Leleges, &c. . . .	Adramyttium.
	Island of Lesbos. . . .	Mytilene.
	Troas.	Troy.
	*Dardania.	
	Little Mysia.	Cyzicua. Lampsacus.
	N.B. Troas and Little Mysia formed Little Phrygia.	
Lydia.	Interior Lydia. . . .	Sardes. Philadelphia. Thyatira.
	1. Lydia.	
	2. Mœonia.	
	3. Asis or Asia.	
	Maritime Lydia or Ionia.	Phocea, Smyrna, Erythræ, Clazomene, Teos, Lebedus, Colophon, Ephesus, Priene, Myus, Mileta, (these three are in Caria,) Island of Samos, Island of Chio.
Caria.	Caria, Interior. . . .	Alabanda, Stratonice, Mylasa.
	Maritime Caria, or Doris.	Halicarnassus, Cos, Cnidos, Rhodes.
Lycia.	Lycia Proper.	Patăra, Myra.
	Milyas (Solimi.)	
Pamphylia.		Attalea.
Pisidia. . . .	Pisidia Proper. . . .	Salagassus, Selga.
	Canton of Etenenses.	
	—of Homonadenses.	
	—of Oroandici.	
	Isauria.	Isabria, Lake Coralis.
Phrygia. . .	Phrygia Proper. . . .	Synnada, Apamēa, Cotyæum, Cibyria.
	*Phrygia Epictetos.	
	Lycaonia.	Iconium, Laodicea combusta, Amorium.
	Galatia (Gallo Græcia.)	Ancyra Gordium, Tavium, Pessinus.
	1. Trocmi (Tavium.)	
	2. Tectosages (Ancyra.)	
	3. Tolistobogi (Pessinus.)	

I.—*Continued.*

Grand Divisions.	Sub-divisions.		Principal Towns.
Bithynia. . . .	Bithynia.		Prusa, Nicea.
	Thynia		Nicomedia, Chalcedon.
	Mariandynis.		Heraclia, Bithynium.
Paphlagonia.			Gangra, Pompeïopolis, Sinope, Amastris.
Pontus.	Country of the Leucosyres.		Amisus.
	*Gadilonitis.		
	*Saramene.		
	*Phazemonitis.		
	Galatian Pontus.		Amasia, Comana Pontica.
	*Themiscyra.		
	*Phanarœa.		
	*Daximonitis.		
	Polemonic Pontus. . . .		Sebastia, Neo-Cæsarea, Œnoe, Polemonium.
	*Sidene.		
	*Calaupene.		
	*Chalybes (western.)		
	Cappadocian Pontus. .		Pharmacea, Cesarus, Trapezus, Rhizæum, Apsarus.
	*Tibareni.		
	*Mosynœci.		
	*Colchos (western.)		
	*Heptacometæ (seven cantons.)		
	*Macrones or Zani.		
Cappadocia. .	Cappadocia Proper.		Mazaca, or Cesarea, Archelaïs, Nazianzus, Tyana.
	1. Moramene.		
	2. Garsauritis.		
	3. Kammamene.		
	4. Tyanitis.		
	5. Cilicia.		
	6. Sargaransene.		
	Cataonia.		Cybestra, Comana.
	Melitena.		Melitena.
	Armenia Minor.		Zimara.
Cilicia.	Cilicia Proper.		Tarsus, Mopsuestia.
	Cilicia Trachea (Aspera,)		Seleucia, Soli.
Cyprus.	Kingdom of Salamis.	Salaminia.	Salamis.
	—Chytry.		
	—Citium.	Amathusia. . . .	Amathus.
	—Curium.		
	—Paphos.	Paphia.	Paphos.
	—Arsinoe.		
	—Soloe.	Lapethia.	Lapethus.
	—Lapethus.		
	—Ceronia.		

II. *Asia Minor, according to the Divisions of Constantine.*

Dioceses.	Provinces.	Towns.
Diocese of Asia. Ephesus the Capital.	Pamphylia.	Attalia.
	Pisidia.	Sagalassus-Lacedæmon.
	Lycaonia.*	Iconium.
	Phrygia pacatiana.	Laodicea.
	Phrygia, salutary	Synnada. Cotyæum.
	Hellespont.†	Pergamus.
	Lydia.	Philadelphia.
	Caria.	Stratonice.
	Lycia.	Myra.
	The Islands.	Rhodes.
	Province of Proconsular Asia, independent of the diocese of Asia.‡	Adramyttium. Phocea. Smyrna. Miletus.
Diocese of Pontus. Cesarea the Capital.	Bythinia.	Chalerdon.
	Honorias.§	Claudiopolis.
	Paphlagonia.	Pompeïopolis.
	Galatia under Theodosius. Galatia 1st. Galatia 2d. v. salutary.	Ancyra.
	Helenopont.‖	Passinus. Sinope, Amisus, Neo-Cesarea.
	Pontus Polemoniæ.	Gerasus, Trapezus.
	Cappadocia under Valentius. Cappadocia 1st.¶ Cappadocia 2d.**	Cesarea. Tyana.
	Armenia prima.	Sabus.
	Armenia secunda.	Melitene.
Under the Diocese of the East.	Cilicia prima.	Anazarbus.
	Cilicia secunda.	Tarsus.
	Isauria.††	Selinus, Seleucia, Larandar.
	Cyprus.	Constantia (Salamis.)

* The ancient province re-established only comprised the neighbouring countries of Iconium. It appears to answer to the sandgiacat of Konieh. Pisidia, aggrandised by a part of the ancient Lycaonia, appears to be represented by the Sandgiacat of Isbarteh or Sparta, the town of this name having succeeded to Lacedæmon-Sagalassus.

† Comprising all ancient Mysia.

‡ The proconsul, independent of the vicar of the diocese of Asia, and of the prefect of the East, inspects the provinces of the Hellespont and the islands; thus, his prefecture represents in some respects the pachalick of the Capudan-pacha, or great admiral.

§ Theodosius the II. named it thus in honour of his uncle Honorius. It appears to be represented by the sandgiacat of Boli.

‖ Named in honour of the mother of Constantine.

¶ Comprising the ancient strategiæ of Cilicia, Sargaraussene, and Kammamené.

** Comprising the strategiæ of Garsauritis and Tyanitis.

†† The Isuarians, almost always in rebellion, took possession of Cilicia Trachea.

BOOK XXVI.

N. B. The division of the empire of the East by Themata, having had but little duration, and no influence upon the modern divisions, we shall not give it. It may be seen in Banduri's Eastern Empire. We shall only observe that the Thema Anatolicon of the Byzantines nearly includes Prætorian Asia. This is the first time that Anatolia makes a figure in geography; but the use of the term Ανατολαι (supple χωρα,) that is, the country of the Levant, was, without doubt, anterior to the division by Themata.

III. *Asia Minor, according to the Turkish Divisions, in the Djehan numa.**

Turkish Divisions.	Chief Towns.†	Ancient Division corresponding.
I. *Pashâlic of Anadkouly.*		
1. Liuah, or Sandgiacat of Kutaiah . . .	*Kutaiah (Cotyæum.) Degnieln or Lazakiéh. (not far from Laodicea upon the Lycus.)	Western and central parts of Phrygia properly so called.
2. — Sarou-Khan . .	*Magnisa (Magnesia ad Sipylum.) . . . . . Akhissar (Thyatira.) Fotchia (Phocea.)	Northern Lydia. N. B. Sarou-Khan is the name of a prince who reigned over this country.
3. Aidin	*Tireh. . . . . . Guzelhissar (Magnesia ad Mæandrum.) Allaschehar (Philadelphia.) Ayasaluk, Sart, &c.	Central and Southern Lydia. Parts of Ionia.
4. — Mentesche . .	*Mullah. . . . . . Mentesche (Myndus.) Melasso (Mylasa.)	Caria, perhaps a part of Lycia.
5. — Tekieh	*Antaliah (Attalia.) . Kupribazar (Perga ?) Iighder (Olympus ?)	Lycia and Pamphylia.
6. — Hamid	†Isparteh (Sagalassus-Lacedæmon.) Bardah. Akshar.	Milyas and the interior of Pisidia.

* *i. e.* The Mirror of the World, a geographical work, composed by Hadgi-Khalfah, the manuscript translation of which is preserved in the royal library at Paris.

† The towns marked with an asterisk are the chief places of the Sandgiacats.

III.—*Continued.*

Turkish Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Ancient divisions corresponding.
7. — Karahissar-Sahib	*Karahissar (Celænæ ?) Boulwadin (Philomelium.) Sandhoukhi.	South East parts of Phrygia.
8. — Sultan Eugny	*Eskisbehr (Dorylæum.) . . . . Kodgeashehr (Nacolia.) Iin-Eugny.	Phrygia Epictetos. Parts of Galatia.
9. — Angouri . .	*Angouri (Ancyra) Canton of Haimaneh.)	Central Galatia. (Tectosages.)
10. — Kiangari . .	*Kiangari (Gangra.) Toussieh (Tocia.) Tcherkis. Tokhat.	The interior of Paphlagonia, (supposing, as we do, that Changreh and Kiangari are the same place.)
11. — Kastamooni .	*Kastamooni . . . Sinoub (Sinope.) Tasch-Kouprou (Pompeïopolis.) Inehboli (Ionopolis.)	Maritime Paphlagonia with Mount Olgassys.
12. — Boli	*Boli (Claudiopolis.) Amasserah (Amastris.) Bend-Erekli (Heraclea.) Viranscheher.	Honorias, or Bithynia eastern, with a part of Paphlagonia.
13. — Khudavendkiar	*Broussah (Prusa ad Olympum.) Jegnishehr. Pergamah (Pergamus.) Bazarkeui.	Southern Bithynia, with the interior of great Mysia.
14. Karassi . . .	*Balikesri (Miletopolis.) Edremid (Adramyttum.) Sandarghui. Ayazmend (Elæa.)	Coasts of Mysia, and Eolis opposite Lesbos, and a part of the interior.
15. —Kodja-Ili . .	*Isnikmid (Nicomedia.) . . . . . Isnik (Nicæa.) Kadikeui (Chalcedon.) Iskudar (Chrysopolis.) Imperial Domain.	Bithynia to the west of Sangarius.
16. —Bigah . . .	*Bigah (Zelia ?) . . Sultanieh. Kapoudagui. Bournabachi.	Tevas and Little Mysia.
17. — Sogla . . .	*Ismir (Smyrna.) . . Ourlah. Menimen (Temnus.)	Part of Ionia.

III.—*Continued.*

Turkish Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Ancient Divisions corresponding.
II. *Pashâlic of Siwas.*		
1. Liwah of Siwas .	*Siwas (Sebastia) . .	Calupene in Polemonic Pontus.
	Tocat (Comana Pontica) Woywodat . .	Daximonites in Galatian Pontus.
2. — Djanick . . .	*Samsoun (Amisus) .	Coasts of Helenopont from the Halys and of Galatian and Polemonic Pontus.
	Unieh (Œnoé.)	
3. — Arebkir . . .	*Arebkir (Arauraci ?)	Confines of Armenia Minor, and Pontus.
4. Diwriki . . .	*Diwriki	Idem.
5. — Tchouroum . .	*Tchouroum (Tavium)	Eastern Galatia.
	Osmandjik. . . .	
6. —Amassiah . .	*Amassiah (Amasea.)	Chiliocome and Phanarœa in Galatian Pontus.
	Marzivan (Phazemon ?)	
7. — Bouzok . . .	*Jeuzgatt † (Mithridatium ?)	Confines of Pontus, of Cappadocia, and Galatia.
III. *Pashâlic of Taraboxan.* ‡		
1. Liwah of Tarabozan	Kadilik of Tarabozan (Trapezus) . . .	Cappadocian Pontus.
	—Kiressount (Cerasus.)	
	—Irizeh (Rhizæum)	
2. Gounieh . . .	—Gounieh (Absarus)	Idem.
	—Athina (Athenæ.)	
	—Soumlah.	
	—Vikah.	
3. — Batoomi . . .	—Batoomi	Southern Colchis.
IV. *Pashâlic of Konieh.*		
1. Liwah of Konieh .	*Konieh (Iconium) .	Central and Southern Lycaonia.
	Ladikieh.	
	Eregli.	
2. — Nighdé . . .	*Nighdé	Eastern part of Catacnia.
	Bustereh (Cibystra.)	

† Hadgi-Khalfah does not mention Jeuzgatt, but it is now the chief place of Bouzok.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah considers the pashalic of Tarabozan as a dependence of Armenia.

III.—*Continued.*

Turkish Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Ancient Divisions corresponding.
3. — Beysheri . .	*Beysheri	Isauria.
	Serki-Serai (Isaura.)	
4. — Akshehr . . .	*Akshehr (Tyriæum)	Western part of Lycaonia.
5. — Akserai . . .	*Akserai (very uncertain)	Western and Central parts of Cappadocia.
6. — Kaisarieh . .	*Kaisarieh (Cæsarea.)	
7. — Kirshehr . .	*Kirshehr (Archelais ?)	
V. *Pashâlic of Merasche.*†		
1. Liwah of Merash .	*Merash (uncertain)	Confines of Syria, Commagenia, Cataonia, and Cilicia.
	Bostan (Comana de Cataonia ?)	
2. — Kars	*Kars-Zoulkadry.	
3. — Aintab . . .	*Aintab (uncertain.)	
4. — Someisath . .	*Someisath (Samosata)	
5. — Malatiiah . .	*Malatiiah (Melitene)	Melitene.
VI. *Pashâlic of Adana.*‡		
1. Liwah of Adana .	*Adana (Antiochia ad Sarum)	Cilicia proper.
2. — Tarsous . . .	*Tarsous (Tarsus) .	Idem.
VII. *Mousselimlik of Cyprus.*		
A. Island of Cyprus.		
No Subdivisions.	Lefcosiah (Nicosia of the Europeans) .	
B. Country of Itchil.§		
1. Liwah of Itchil .	Selefkeh (Seleucia)	Cilicia Trachea.
	Selinti (Selinus.)	
2. — Alanieh. . .	Alanieh (Side ?)	Pamphylia.

† This country, possessed by Turcoman beys, called Doulgadir, or Zoulhadir, takes the name of Doulgadir-Ili.

‡ This little country was a principality of the Turcoman beys, called Ramadan-Oglou, or Sons of Ramadan.

§ When the Osmanlis made the conquest of the State of Karaman, they divided it into two parts, viz. 1st, Kharidg, or exterior country to the north of Taurus. 2d, Itchil, or interior country to the south of that chain. Djehan Numa, p. 1750 of the manuscript translation.

BOOK XXVII.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

PART II.

Including Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Irac-Arabi.

BOOK XXVII.

THE eastern provinces of the Turkish empire in Asia form three natural divisions: the region of Orontes and Libanus, or Syria and Palestine; that of the sources of the Euphrates and of the Tigris, or Armenia with Koordistan; finally, the region of Lower Euphrates, or Al-Djesira with Irac-Arabi, otherwise Mesopotamia, and Babylonia. We shall here connect the two divisions on the Euphrates, without confounding them. Syria will be described in a separate book.

General view.

Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Babylonia, though greatly neglected by modern geographers, have a good claim to our careful attention. It was in this country that the first towns known in history were built, and the first kingdoms formed. It was here that Alexander gave the mortal blow to the colossal monarchy of Persia. At a later period, the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates became the bloody theatre where Trajan, Julian, and Heraclius conducted the Roman legions against the squadrons of invincible Parthia. In modern times, the Osmanlis and the Sophis, the sect of Omar and that of Ali, are still two great powers who dispute the mastery of these countries. Nature has here presented us with a sufficient number of ob-

jects both of interest and study, independently of the transactions of men, and their transient power. There are few countries of the globe where, in so small a space, so many striking contrasts are found united. Within an extent of ten degrees of latitude, we have at Bagdad a heat equal to that of Senegambia, and on the summit of Ararat eternal snows. The forests of firs and oaks in Mesopotamia join those of palms and orange trees. The roaring of the lions of Arabia echoes to the howling of the bears of Mount Taurus. We might indeed say that Africa and Siberia had here given each other a meeting. This near approach of climates so opposite, principally arises from the great differences which are found in elevation. Armenia, which is a very elevated plain, is encompassed on all sides by lofty mountains.

Mountains of Ararat, Tsheldir, &c.

Ararat, always whitened with snow, rises in the centre of this country.* To the north, the mountains of Tsheldir, and Djanik, separate Armenia from the Euxine Sea. This chain, although in part covered with fine forests, does not appear to yield in height to Caucasus; for in the month of June snow sometimes falls near Erzroom upon the southern declivities.† The chains of Taurus enter Armenia near the cataracts of the Euphrates; they rise considerably in advancing to the east: the *Niphates* of the ancients, to the south-east of the lake Van, derive their name from the snows which cover their summits all the year.‡ The Gordian mountains of Xenophon, called Corduene in the map of d'Anville, fill the whole of Koordistan; one branch prolonged to the south is the *Zagrus* of the ancients, which separates the Ottoman empire from Persia. Its lower branches terminate at some leagues from the eastern banks of the Tigris. A detached branch of

* Tournefort, etc.

† Djéhan Numa, p. 1136. French manuscript translation in the Imperial library. Travels of a missionary, p. 94. Paris, 1730.

‡ Manuscript account of M. Fabvier.

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Taurus, the *Mons Masius* of the ancients, passes between the Tigris and the Euphrates, and forms the declivity upon which the town of Merdin is situated, and then terminates in the hills of Singar, to the west of Mosul. From these two points an immense plain extends to the coasts of the Persian Gulf, where the wearied eye scarcely perceives the slight undulations of the ground: a great part of these plains, below the point where the two rivers unite, was formerly covered with a number of lakes now dried up,* and even now there are a great many parts which are inundated by the slightest increase of the rivers.

To this general description of the country, we shall now add that of the two great rivers which water it.

Course of the Euphrates.

The Euphrates takes its rise from several sources; two branches, in particular, dispute the honour of being the principal; one not far distant from the town of Bayazid, in the mountains named Ala-Dag, anciently the mountain *Abus*, and of which Ararat makes a part. This river, which bears the name of Murad, disappears under ground at the distance of four hours travelling from Bayazid.† It reappears, and receives, near Melaskerd, another river of this name, and traverses all the district of Turuberan, the southern part of Armenia Proper. The other branch of the Euphrates, which the Orientalists call Frat, is formed under the walls of Erzroom, by the junction of two small rivers, one of which probably represents the Lycus of Pliny; these two rivers united do not equal the Murad, which Xenophon considered the real Euphrates. The Frat and the Murad unite their waters a little below the town of Arabkir; the river, now very considerable, descends rapidly towards the defile called the Pass of Nushar; having passed this, it winds along an elevated plain, but soon meeting with a fresh inequality of ground, forms a double cataract twenty-two miles above Semisat.

* Pliny vi. c. 27. Strabo xv. p. 1060, (Amelov.) Albulfeda, ap. Busching, p. 256.

† Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1131. *sqq.* D'Anville, Euphrates and the Tigris.

Disengaged from all the obstacles which restrained its force, it now rolls majestically along through a wide and verdant valley. To the south of Kerkisiéh it enters the immense plains of Sennar; but being repelled on the Arabian side by some sandy and calcareous heights, it is forced to approach the Tigris in its course.

Course of the Tigris.

This other river, the rival and companion of the Euphrates, has its most considerable source in the mountains of the country of Zoph, the ancient Sophené, a part of Armenia. The Euphrates, already of great size, receives all the streams of that country; but, by a singular exception, this, the smallest among them, escapes the destination of its neighbours. A rising ground prevents it from proceeding to the Euphrates. A deep ravine in the mountains above Diarbekir opens a passage for it, and it takes its speedy course across a territory which is very unequal, and has a powerful declivity. Its extreme rapidity, the natural effect of local circumstances, has procured for it the name of *Tigr* in the Median language, *Diglito* in Arabic, and *Hiddekel* in Hebrew; all of which terms denote the flight of an arrow.* Besides this branch, which is best known to the moderns, Pliny has described to us in detail another, which issues from the mountains of Koordistan to the west of the lake Van. It passes by the lake Arethusa. Its course being checked by a part of the mountain of Taurus, it falls into the subterranean cavern called Zoroanda, and appears again at the bottom of the mountain. The identity of its waters is shown by the re-appearance of light bodies at its issue that have been thrown into it above the place where it enters the mountain. It passes also by the lake Thospitis, near the town of Erzen, buries itself again in subterranean caverns, and reappears at a distance of 25 miles below, near the modern Nymphæum. This branch joins the western Tigris below the city of Diarbekir.†

Its names.

Union of the two rivers.

In proportion as the Tigris and the Euphrates ap-

* Wahl, Asien, I. 711.

† Plin. loc. cit.

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proach one another, the intermediate land loses its elevation, and is occupied by meadows and morasses. Several artificial communications, perhaps two or three which are natural, form a prelude to the approaching junction of the rivers, which finally takes place near Korna. The river formed by their junction is called Shat-al-Arab, or the river of Arabia. It has three principal mouths, besides a small outlet; these occupy a space of thirty-six miles. The southernmost is the deepest and freest in its current. Bars of sand formed by the river, and which change in their form and situation, render the approach dangerous to the mariner. The tide, which rises above Bassora, and even beyond Corna, meeting with violence the downward course of the stream, raises its waters in the form of frothy billows.*

Mouths.

Uncertainties of the mouths and canals of the Euphrates.

Such are the known facts respecting the course of these two rivers. A full discussion of the questions which have been raised on this part of geography, would require a separate treatise. Some of the ancients described the Euphrates as losing itself in the lakes and marshes to the south of Babylon;† others consider the river formed by the union of the two as entitled to a continuation of the name of Euphrates.‡ According to some, the Euphrates originally entered the sea as a separate river, the course of which the Arabs stopped up by a mound.§ This last opinion has been in some measure revive by a modern traveller, who supposes that the canal of Naar-Sares, proceeding from the Euphrates on the north of Babylon, is continued without interruption to the sea.‖ The bay called Khore-abdallah would, according to this hypothesis, represent the ancient mouth of the river; but this bay existed in the time of Ptolemy under the name of the *Sinus Mesenites*. With regard to the canal Nahr-Sares, it appears for certain to rejoin the river near Semawé. The dry bed corresponding

* Philipp. à Sancta Trinitate, Itiner. p. 144.

† Arrian, VII. 7. Mela, III. 8. Plin. V. 26. Ptolemy, &c.

‡ Strabo, II. 132. XV. 1060.

§ Plin. VI. 27.

‖ Niebuhr. Voyage II. 228, 253. 261.

to the gulf of Kheire-abdallah, and on which we find the remains of the old city of Bassora, terminates in the Euphrates a little to the west of Korna. The Pallacopas, or the canal of Koufa, seems to extend no farther than the lakes on the south of Babylon. The continual changes to which this flat and moveable ground is subject, the inundations of the rivers, and the works of human labour, concur to render the solution of these points impossible.

Size of the rivers.

There is also some uncertainty respecting the relative size of the Tigris and the Euphrates. The last has certainly the longest course, but weakened by drains; it presents at Hilleh a width not exceeding 420 feet, while the Tigris at Bagdat is more than 600. The inhabitants of the country, in order to irrigate their lands, dam up both the one and the other with dykes, which the historians of Alexander have, in their simplicity, mistaken for military bulwarks, intended to check the progress of the Arabian pirates up the river.*

Armenia.

We must now ascend to the sources of the Euphrates, to give a description of Armenia. This country, we have already said, forms a very high plateau, crowned with mountains still higher. Ararat and Kohi-sciban show from a great distance their summits covered with perpetual snow. Several parts of Armenia have undergone changes by the operation of earthquakes. Djebel-Nimrod, *i. e.* the mountain of Nimrod, has sometimes emitted flames, and still has on its summit a small lake which, according to the account of a Turkish geographer, seems to be an old volcanic crater: the country seems rich in natural curiosities.

Van lake.

The great lake of Van, sometimes called the Argis, is the *Arsissa palus* of Ptolemy and the Mantian lake of Strabo. Its water is very saline.† Two rivers near Soushesheri produce crystallized salt, the one white and the other red. The round stones found near Keify appear to be natural aggregates of orbicular granite. The cold, very intense in the high districts, leaves only three months for

* Ive's Travels, p. 51. Niebuhr, II. p. 243.

† Tavernier's six Journeys, l. III. cap. 3.

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the season of vegetation, including seed time and harvest;* yet the crops of corn are abundant. Walnut and apple-trees are to be found here; the latter afford, in the cold district of Akhlat, apples weighing nearly a pound. As we go down the Euphrates, we see the vine and the olive flourish, although at Erzroom there are neither fruit trees nor wood for fuel.† The horses of Armenia are highly extolled by the ancients. Gold mines which were worked are mentioned by them.‡ At present copper and iron are exported to Mosul.§

Productions.

Cities. Erzroom, &c.

Erzroom, one of the bulwarks of the Ottoman empire on the east, has walls built of clay hardened in the sun. It contains 25,000 inhabitants, of whom 8000 are Armenians. These are manufacturers in copper utensils, and carry on a great trade in skins and furs. Kars and Van on the frontiers of Persia, are little known. They, as well as Erzroom, are the residences of the three pashâs who govern the country. Ardgis is still mentioned as a town on the Van lake, Erzendgian on the Eurphates, and some others, among which Khanoos deserves our attention. This town in situated in the hollow of a rock, which forms a natural wall round it. In the centre of the town there stands a high isolated piece of rock.‖ This singularity leads us to recognize here the ancient Theodosiopolis,¶ which was forty-two stadia from the sources of the Euphrates. The towns of Baibuth and Ispir give animation to a fruitful valley, from which building timber and different kinds of conserves are exported.** On the north-east of Armenia, the old pashâlic of Tsheldir, mentioned by Ricaut, and which many geographers have sought for in vain, has taken the name of Akalzike,†† from that of a

Pashâlic of Tsheldir, or Akalzike.

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1136.

† Id. p. 1117.

‡ Strabo, lib. XI. § 9. Procop. Pers. I. 15.

§ Sprengel, Bibliothèque des Voyages, VIII. p. 2. and 93. (in German.)

‖ Hadgi Khalfah, p. 1128.

¶ Procop. Persic. I. 17. Constant. Porphyrog. de Administ. imp. p. II. cap. 45.

** Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1127.

†† Id. p. 1069.

fortress situated on the Kour, and which is its capital. It is sometimes called Turkish Georgia.—South from this, and on the very frontier of the Persian province of Erivan, are the ruins of Anni, one of the ancient capitals of Armenia, on the river Harpazu, a tributary of the Araxes. These ruins present brilliant specimens of the former grandeur of the place. The whole surface is covered with hewn stones, broken capitals, columns, and shattered but highly ornamented friezes. Several elegant churches are still standing. The palace is a structure of great extent, resembling a town, and superbly decorated within and without with varied and highly wrought carving on the stone, and the floors of its numerous halls are beautified with finely executed mosaic patterns. The masonry of the whole place is firm and well finished, seeming to bid defiance to the influence of time, though exhibiting the dilapidations of the ruthless hand of barbarism. Sir Robert Ker Porter, who paid it a hasty visit in 1817, says that the masterly workmanship of the capitals of pillars, the nice carvings of the intricate ornaments and arabesque friezes surpassed any thing he had ever seen when abroad, or in the most celebrated cathedrals of England. The churches and other religious houses also abound with inscriptions; but it is completely deserted, and only the haunt of parties of desperate banditti. At a distance of five miles to the east, there is an Armenian monastery, where that hospitality is shown which, in such a country, affords a valuable solace to the pilgrim or the traveller.*

Ruins of Anni.

The Armenian nation, one of the most ancient in the world, is called in their own language *Hai-kani;* and although the accounts which the Armenian historian, Moses of Chorene, gives of a king Haik, grandson of Japhet, are involved in deep obscurity, certain it is, that the Armenian language, rude and uncouth in its pronunciation, has in its syntax more analogy with the European than with the oriental languages.† This nation is distin-

The Armenian nation.

* Porter's Travels in Georgia and Persia, vol. I. p. 172.

† See Adelung, Mithridate, I. p. 423.

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guished by an elegant form and an animated physiognomy. The constant victims of wars, waged by the great surrounding powers contending for the possession of the country, they have been forced in a great measure to leave their paternal soil. Addicted to commerce and manufactures, they have prospered in every country from Hungary to China. They find their way to places inaccessible to Europeans; they traverse the elevated plains of Tartary and that which is watered by the Niger. With them frugality preserves the earnings of industry. In their own country, as well as abroad, they generally live in large families, under the patriarchal government of the oldest member, and in a state of happy concord.* But this family attachment is found but too compatible with insensibility, injustice, and perfidy to persons of a different race.

Armenian Church.

The religion of the Armenians is that of the ancient eastern church, only they deny the doctrine of the two natures in the person of Christ, or rather consider these natures as existing, but united in one;† they have also some peculiar notions about the Eucharist. Like the Greeks, they allow the priests to marry. Their fasts and abstinences surpass in rigour and frequency those of all other Christian sects.‡ Two great patriarchs, called catholic or universal, rule the Armenian church. One, whose residence is at Etshmiazin, in the province of Erivan, or Persian Armenia, had, a century and a half ago, 150,000 families within his spiritual jurisdiction. The patriarch of Sis, in the little Armenia of antiquity, and who has formed a union with the church of Rome, reckoned only 20,000.

Number of the Armenians.

Proceeding on this fact,§ we may estimate the whole nation at that time at 1,700,000 individuals, and it has not probably since diminished.

The Turcomans.

Besides the Armenians who are engaged in trade and agriculture, and the Osmanli Turks who hold civil and

* Castwright's Travels in Persia, p. II.

† Nicephorus, Hist. Eccles. l. XVIII. cap. 53. Confessio Armenior. art. 26—30. Concil. Constant. 3, canon. 32, &c.

‡ Vitriacus, Hist. Orient. c. 79.

§ Leonard. Sidon. episc. ap. Thom. à Jes. l. VII. p. 1. cap. 19.

military offices, Armenia maintains a Tartar nation called the Turcomans. This nation, originally inhabiting the eastern shores of the Caspian Sea, came first to establish themselves in Armenia Major, called for that reason Turcomania. But their attachment to a wandering life brought several hordes of them to the interior of Asia Minor and the government of Itchil; they have adopted the Turkish language and a rude form of Mahometanism. Ignorant, and content with a life of poverty, they support themselves on the produce of their flocks, and spend the principal part of their time under tents of felt. BOOK XXVII.

Their women spin wool and make carpets, an article in use in that part of the world from time immemorial. The sole occupation of the men is to tend their flocks, and to smoke. Constantly on horseback, with the lance on their shoulder, a curved sabre by their side, and a pistol in their girdle, they make vigorous horsemen and hardy soldiers. They have frequent disputes with the Turks, who respect their power. About 30,000 Turcomans wander in the pashâlics of Aleppo and Damascus, the only parts of Syria which they frequent. A great part of these tribes migrate during the summer to Armenia and Caramania, where they find the pasture more abundant, and return in winter to their former quarters.

Koordistan, or the country of the Koords, extends in the south of Armenia to a length of nearly 300 miles, and less than the half in breadth. The mountains known to the ancients under the names of *Gordyæi* and *Niphates*, are always partially covered with snow. No such summer heats as these which burn up the plains of Mesopotamia, extend a scorching influence to the verdant pastures where the Koord tends his flocks of goats. The cheerful vales, and the long terraces of the mountains, yield fruits and rice. The forests consist chiefly of oaks, which afford gall-nuts of the best quality of any in the east.* Grain, cotton, flax, and sesamum, are raised in the plains. A small Koordistan

* Garzoni, grammat. della l. Kurda, Preface.—Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1218.

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tree, resembling the oak, yields, over all its surface, a rich manna, on which the ancients and moderns concur in their encomiums, and to which they have sometimes been disposed to ascribe an origin more sublime than that of vegetable secretion.* The rivers, the largest of which are the Diala and the Zaab, are rapid, and fall into the Tigris.

The five principalities.

According to Garzoni, who passed eighteen years in Koordistan, this country consists of five principalities. That

1. Bidlis.

of Bidlis comprehends the countries on the west and south-west of the lake Van, where Koordistan comes in contact with Armenia, and their limits become uncertain. The capital, which bears the same name, is situated in a charming valley covered with apple and pear trees. A little to the south of that town, the road from Persia to Syria passes through a perforation in the rock.† The Koords of this principality are denominated Bidlisi.‡ To the

2. Giulamerk.

south of the lake Van stands the town of Giulamerk, the capital of the principality of that name, the inhabitants of which are called the Sciambo. Some call them also the Hakiary, which is perhaps the name of the reigning family.§ The Baldinan Koords live on the west of the principality of Giulamerk, between Mosul and Bidlis. Their

3. Amadia.

capital is Amadia. This district produces excellent grapes, and other fruits in abundance.‖ More to the north-west,

4. Djezira.

and indeed within the pashâlic of Diarbekir, we find Djezira, the capital of a principality, the inhabitants of which are called Bottani. Here is the mountain of Dgioudi, where, according to the Koords, Noah's ark rested; and that of Kiaveh, always enveloped in fogs; where wild bees hive in holes under ground, and produce remarkably fine honey, and a fragrant wax.¶ The largest principali-

5. Kara Djiolan.

ties of this country is Kara Djiolan, with a capital town

* Strabo, II. 73. Diodor. &c. Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1184. Olivier IV. 274.

† Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1092.

‡ Garzoni, l. c.

§ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1106.

‖ Olivier, Voyage, IV. 275.

¶ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1170, 1181.

of the same name. The tribe, according to Garzoni, is called Soranes: but according to Niebuhr this is the name of the reigning family. This state, comprehending all the northern part of Koordistan, is capable of furnishing 15,000 armed men. The other four princes can only raise from 10 to 12,000 each. The two small pashâlics of Sherzour and Kerkouk, governed by mousselims or superintendants, appear to be formed by forcible encroachments on the principality of Kara-Djiolan. There is a town called Sha-meran on the Diala, which occupies so steep a position, that its only entrance is by steps formed of vine branches.* Another town, Arbil, represents the ancient Arbela, immortalised by the defeat of Darius and the fall of the Persian monarchy.

Some other independent cantons are mentioned by authors. The Urghiany on the Persian frontier are quite different from the other Koords. Perhaps they are the descendents of the Hyrcanians, of whom colonies were established by the Persians in other parts of their empire. The Sekmans are shepherds and robbers, who make predatory incursions into Armenia. The Turkish geographers mention several Koordish tribes dependent on the pashâlic of Diarbekir, but these wandering hordes form no part of the population of Koordistan.

The Urghiany.

The Koords, the descendants of the ancient *Karduchi Gordyæi*, or *Kyrti*, speak the Persian language, mixed with several Arabic and Chaldean terms. They make use of the Persian character; and a *mollah* or doctor is kept in each village who understands the Persian language.† The Mahometan religion is here conjoined with various superstitions, seeming remnants of the system of the ancient magi. According to the Turks they offer worship to the devil, that is, the evil principle, the Ahriman of the ancient Persians.‡ About 100,000 Koords are Nestorian Chris-

The Koords. Manners, religion, &c.

Nestorian Kurds.

* Idem, p. 1206.

† Garzoni, p. 11.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1211, etc.

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tians, and acknowledge the authority of two hereditary patriarchs. One who always bears the name of Mar-Simon, resides at Kodgiamisi near Giulamerk; he has five suffragan bishops. The other lives at Raban-Ormes; his title is Mar-Elias, and he has under him thirteen bishops. The episcopal dignity is hereditary, descending from uncle to nephew. Their ordination often takes place at the age of twelve. The inferior clergy can scarcely read.* Xenophon tells us that the Karduchi, though shut up on every side in the Persian empire, had always braved the power of the great king and the arms of his satraps. They have changed but little in modern times. Though apparently tributary to the Ottoman government, they pay but little respect to the orders of the Grand Signior and his pashâs. According to the information collected by Niebuhr, they have a sort of feudal government in their mountains. Each village has its chief, who is vassal to the prince of the tribe. Garzoni mentions that the *assiretta*, or small tribes, often revolt against their princes and dethrone them. The wars arising out of this state of anarchy having separated from the nation many families, who have betaken themselves to the wandering life of the Turcomans and Arabs. These are scattered through Diarbekir, the plains of Erzroom, Erivan, Sivas, Aleppo and Damascus. Their hordes, taken together, are estimated at 140,000 tents, equivalent to the same number of armed men. These Koords, like the Turcomans, are shepherds and wanderers, but differ from them in some of their customs. The Turcomans give marriage portions with their daughters; the Koords receive a high price from the bridegroom. The Turcomans pay no respect to distinctions of high birth. The Koords set a high value on extraction. The Turcomans are not addicted to thieving: the Koords are every where considered as robbers.† The Koords have a white complexion, an animated physiognomy, and an imposing aspect. They are capable of any undertak-

Government.

Population.

* Garzoni, p. 7.

† Volney, Voyage en Syrie.

ing. Mahomet himself said that they would yet revolutionize the world. BOOK XXVII.

Mesopotamia, in the most extensive acceptation, encroaches on the ancient Armenia. The pashâlic of Diarbekir comprehends the ancient Sophené; it is a country of mountains of moderate height, well watered and separated by agreeable valleys. The mines of Maaden furnish gold and silver, but the chief metallic production is copper. The forests which supplied Alexander and Trajan with timber for the building of their fleets* have not yet entirely disappeared from the banks of the Tigris. Those of the Euphrates are crowned with lilacs, jessamines, vines, olives, and other fruit trees. Tobacco, cotton, silk, and wool, might be added to the riches of this province, if it had a more regular government to repress the rapine of the Koords. The ancient city of Amida, now called Amid, or more commonly Diarbekir, has flourishing manufactures of morocco and silks. The houses, built of lava, amount at least to 8000, and contain upwards of 40,000 inhabitants.† The environs produce melons and pumpkins of a hundred pounds weight. Wheat gives a return of thirty fold. The city of Merdin consists of three thousand houses, looking down from its heights of calcareous rocks on the plains of lower Mesopotamia. To Josaphat Barbaro, a Venetian traveller, Merdin appeared to have the most extraordinary possible situation. It is ascended by a stair cut in the rock more than a mile high, at the top of which is the gate; but there is no wall, the defence of the place being trusted solely to its inaccessible situation. The Turks hyperbolically say that the inhabitants never see a bird flying over their town. It has manufactures of silk and cotton.

Mesopotamia. Diarbekir.

City.

Descending the Tigris, we enter the pashâlic of Mosul, a small but fertile country, part of which, situated on

Pashâlic of Mosul.

* Dio. Cass. LXXVIII. 26. LXXV. 9.

† M. Trezel's journal, in MS.

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the east of the river, belongs to ancient Assyria. It abounds in grain, cotton, figs, and pomegranates. The air, very cold in winter, is often hot and sickly in autumn.*

City.

Mosul reckons from 60 to 70,000 inhabitants, of whom 15,000 are Turks, an equal number Koords, 25,000 Arabs, and 8000 Christians. Governed by a pashâ who is almost hereditary, this city enjoys a tolerable share of liberty; it is a place much frequented by merchants. It has its manufactures of morocco and of cotton. The name of Mosul affords the etymology of the term *muslin*, in French *mousseline*.†—The village of Nunia on the banks of the Tigris, opposite to Mosul, is ascertained to be the site of the ancient Nineveh. Here are found a rampart and fosse, four miles in circumference; but Mr. Kinnear believes these to belong to a city founded subsequently to the time of Adrian, so that Nineveh has left no trace now in existence.

Nineveh.

Pashâlic of Orfa.

The western part of Mesopotamia, which has for its boundary the circuitous course of the Euphrates, is separated from the flat desert by the great river Khaboor, the ancient Chaboras, which, according to an oriental geographer, is formed at once by 300 salient springs.‡ Several such springs create in other parts a rich verdure;§ but in general a deficiency of water diminishes the natural fertility of this country, which corresponds to the ancient *Osroëne*, and which at present forms the Mousselimat or pashâlic of Orfa. The city of this name, containing a population of 30,000 or 40,000, profits by its manufactures, and by the passage of the caravans of Aleppo. Some traces of volcanoes are found in its vicinity.‖ About twelve miles from Djaour Kouri, to the north-east of Orfa, there is an immense number of artificial caves in regular arrangement, presenting the remains of a subterranean city¶ Here the an-

Orfa.

Remarkable caves.

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1134.

† Olivier, Voyage, IV. 265.

‡ Abulfeda, apud Busching, Magasin Géog. V. 239.

§ Niebuhr, II. 407. Tavernier, l. II. cap. 4.

‖ Olivier, Voyage IV. 379.

¶ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1191, compared with Olivier.

cient Cyclops, Arabs, or Syrians, who inhabited these perennial dwellings, were perfectly secure from the burning summers and the still more chilling winters of the climate. The ruined town of Harran,* known in the age of Abraham, figures in the Roman history under the name of Charræ. It was here that Crassus and his legions were destroyed. Two hours' walk from this city, says the Turkish geographer, are to be seen, on a place called Abraham's hill, the remains of a temple of the Sabeans or worshippers of the stars. We are informed by the ancients that there was at Charræ a temple of the god Lunus.† Antique Ruins.

The north-west part of the pashâlic of Orfa, or the ancient Mygdonia, presents us with luxuriant pastures and flowery hills. Hence the Greeks called it Anthemusia, from ἄνθος, "a flower." Here the famous fortress of Nisibis stood so long out against the arms of the Parthians. It has only left some feeble traces in the town of Nesibin, a place which is remarked for white roses.‡ Dara, another Roman fortress, has left more extensive ruins. In descending the river which runs from Nesibin to the Khabour, we come to a lake called Katonié, with an island on which a pyramid is erected.§ On the south-east the isolated mountain of Sindjar commands an extensive view of the arid plains; its sides, watered with fresh streams, are adorned with date trees and pomegranates. But a ferocious and sanguinary race have made it the retreat of their robberies. These are the Yesidis, a Mahometan sect, who are accused of worshipping the devil, and whose character certainly corresponds to such a predilection. Environs of Nisibis. Mountain of Sindjar. The Yesidis.

The desert of Mesopotamia, in all its gloomy uniformity, now meets our view. Saline plants cover detached spots at great distances, in the burning sands or the parched selenite. Here the wormwood, like the heath in Europe, takes Desert of Mesopotamia.

* Niebuhr, II. 410. Otter, I. cap. 11.

† Spartian, Caracalla, cap. 7. compare with Ammian. Marcell. XXIII. 3.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1170.

§ Niebuhr, II. 390.

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possession of immense spaces, to the exclusion of every other plant.* Flocks of fleet antelopes scour the plains where, in former times, wild asses wandered. The lion, lying in ambush in the rushes by the river side, watches the approach of these animals, and from thence, when his hunger has not found sufficient prey, he sallies in his rage, and sends his dreadful roar, like peals of thunder, echoing from desert to desert.† The water found here is generally bitter or brackish. It is usual to correct its taste by dissolving in it the root of liquorice, which is plenty in these parts. This desert is a continuation of the great desert of Arabia, giving a specimen of its horrors beyond the Euphrates. The air, like that of Arabia, is generally pure and dry. In the bare plains of sand it sometimes becomes burning. The miasmata arising from stagnant waters are diffused in it, and its pestilential qualities are aggravated by exhalations from salt putrescent lakes. It is this element set in motion by some want of equilibrium in the atmosphere, that has been supposed to create that fatal wind known by the name of the samoom or samiel, which is less dreaded in the middle of Arabia than on its borders, and chiefly in Syria and Mesopotamia. When this deadful wind arises, the sun seems covered with blood, from the dust which is raised to an immense height in the atmosphere; animals in consternation lay themselves flat on the ground to escape its torrefying force, which suffocates any living being rash enough to expose itself. A sound physical philosophy views the heat and the violent motion of the air as adequate to all its effects, which are certainly not exaggerated; but we may be permitted to reckon the poisonous impregnation attributed to it among the creations of the same propensity to the terrible, which remarks the analogy between the obscurity now imparted to the light of the sun, and the colour of blood.

The samoom.

* Xenophon, Cyri Exped. I. c. 5. Ammian. Marcell. XXV. c. 3.

† Travels and Observations of De la Boulaye-le-Gouz, p. 320, (4to edit. 1657.)

This desert is skirted by some agreeable and fertile stripes. Tamarinds, wild cherries, cypresses, and weeping willows, here and there shade the banks of the Euphrates; the waters of which, raised by wheels, irrigate in various spots groves of pomegranates, lemons, and sycamores.* The town of Anah is one of these delicious spots. It extends on both sides of the Euphrates, and seems to belong to Arabia Deserta, of which the ordinary run of geographers make it the capital, as if a hundred wandering independent tribes required or admitted of a capital. This place seems to be at times the residence of an emir or Arabian prince, the chief of some powerful tribe. On the north of Anah, along the Euphrates, a district covered with mulberries extends as far as a place called Balis. Narrow paths lead through its thickets to hidden hovels. Here a tribe of peaceful Arabs, the Beni-Semen, raise silk-worms, and export the produce. This district, little known to European travellers, is called the country of Zombouk.†

Anah.

Country of Zombouk.

The caravans which carry goods from Bagdat to Aleppo usually pass by Anah. They pay tribute to the Arabs, who reckon themselves the lords of the desert, even to the east of the Euphrates. They have to encounter the dangers of the suffocating winds, the swarms of locusts, and the failure of water, as soon as they depart from the line of the river. A French traveller tells us that he witnessed one of the most appalling scenes of this kind between Anah and Taibu. The locusts having devoured every thing, perished in countless heaps, poisoning with their dead bodies the ponds which usually afforded water when no springs were near. This traveller saw a Turk running down from a hillock with despair in his looks. "I am," says he, "the most ill-fated man in the world. I have purchased, at an enormous rate, two hundred young women, the finest of Greece and Georgia. I brought them

Dangers of travellers from the failure of water.

* Rauwolf's Travels in the East, p. 187. (in German.) Texeira, Relaciones &c. p. 135, (Antwerp edition, 1610,) Philipp. a Sancta Trinit. &c.

† Hadgi-Khalfah, Turkish Geography, p. 1197.

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up with great care, and now when arrived at the age of marriage, I have come with them on my way to Bagdat, thinking to dispose of them to advantage. Alas! they are all now dying of thirst in this desert. My despair, however, is more tormenting than even theirs." The traveller, turning round the hillock, beheld a sight of horror. In the midst of twelve eunuchs, and about a hundred camels, he saw all these girls, from twelve to fifteen years old, stretched on the ground in the agonies of a burning thirst and inevitable death. Some had already been buried; a larger number had fallen down by the side of their keepers, who had not sufficient strength left to bury them. On every hand were heard the sobs of the dying, and the cries of those in whom enough of life still remained, begging for a drop of water. The traveller hastened to open his flask, in which a little water was left, and was now offering it to one of these poor victims. "You fool," exclaims the Arabian conductor, "would you have us also to perish for want of water?" and with his arrow laid the girl dead at his feet; laid hold of the bottle, and threatened the life of any one who should dare to touch it. He advised the Turkish merchant to go on to Taïbu where he would find water. "No," says the Turk, "at Taïbu the robbers would carry off all my slaves." The Arab forced the traveller to accompany him. At the moment of their departure these unfortunates, losing the last ray of hope, uttered a piercing shriek. The Arab was affected, took one of the girls, poured some drops of water on her burning lips, and placed her on his camel, intending her as a present to his wife. The poor girl fainted repeatedly on passing the dead bodies of her companions. The small stock of water of the travellers was soon exhausted when they discovered a well of fresh clear water. Here, disconcerted by the depth of the well, and the shortness of their rope, they tore their clothes into stripes, which they tied together, and with this frail cordage contrived to take up the water in small quantities, dreading the loss of their bucket, and the disappointment

of their hopes. Through such perils and anxieties, they at last found their way to the first stages of Syria.*

Babylonia.

As the two great rivers approach one another, particularly at Bagdat, where there is only a distance of a six hours walk between them,† the desert passes into an immense meadow, which only requires irrigation to yield prodigious vegetable crops. This is the ancient Babylonia, formed, like the Delta of Egypt, by alluvial soil. Even to the people of the east, the heats of this country seem excessive.‡ The proximity of the mountains of Koordistan renders the winters cold. The flats are inundated by the Euphrates and the Tigris, which deposit no slime like the Nile: yet these natural irrigations are sufficient to make the fields of Bagdat the garden of Asia. Here rice and barley formerly yielded a return of two hundred fold. The canals being at present neglected, the crops do not exceed one-tenth of what they were. Cotton is cultivated. The lemons and apricots are excellent. Indigo might undoubtedly succeed, and probably the sugar cane. There is a great want of trees. The date is the only one which ornaments the fields; the inhabitants live upon the fruit, cover their houses with the leaves, and make their posts of the trunks. Along the Tigris, springs of naphtha and bitumen are found in great number. The black bitumen serves instead of oil. The white or naphtha is esteemed a valuable drug.§ They adhere to the ancient custom of pitching over with bitumen the vessels of willow basket-work in which they navigate the river. This substance is in such abundance, that it is allowed to flow into the Tigris, where, floating on the surface, it is sometimes set on fire by the boatmen, and exhibits the appearance of a burning river.

Productions.

Springs of bitumen.

Bagdat, the second Babylon, the ancient residence of

Bagdat.

* Voyages des Indes Orientales, par Carré. Paris, 1699. vol. I. Voyages de Pietro de la Valle, de Texeira, etc.

† Niebuhr, II. p. 292. Ives, p. 75, etc.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1240. Comp. Olivier, IV. p. 308, *sqq.*

§ Niebuhr, Voyage, II. 336, Otter, 1. I. cap. 14.

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the Kaliphs, and the theatre of so many oriental tales, contains at the present day, rather less than 80,000 inhabitants, of whom 50,000 are Arabs. Adorned with fine bazars, it has the air of a Persian rather than a Turkish city, but the streets are extremely dirty, and the houses destitute of elegance. The city, properly so called, is protected by a high wall. Manufactures of cotton cloths and velvets, together with the trade of India, contribute to the opulence of the inhabitants, whose manners preserve some remains of the politeness which distinguished the brilliant court of the Kaliphs.* A traveller remarks, with astonishment, that in this place there is no such thing as the slaughtering of oxen. The Turkish geographer informs us that this arose from a law of the Abbassides made for the encouragement of agriculture.† The pashâ of Bagdat, whose dominion extends from Bassora to Orfa, and from Sherzoor to the ruins of Babylon, can raise 50,000 soldiers, and yields but little submission to the Sublime Porte.

Ruins of Seleucia, Ctesiphon, &c.

Below Bagdat, the ruins called Al-Modain, or the Two Cities, have attracted the attention of every traveller. One of them is unquestionably the ancient Ctesiphon; but the other, which lies on the western side of the river, is not Seleucia, as all the travellers affirm.‡ It is Kochos, a fortress situated opposite to Seleucia, and which, according to the positive testimony of Arrian and Gregory of Nazianzus, was different from Seleucia.§ The ruins of the latter must be found three miles at least from the Tigris, on a canal of communication between that river and the Euphrates. It is at Ctesiphon that we find the admirable ancient buildings, called Takt-Kesroo, which, according to the most general opinion, means the palace of Chosroes.‖

* Olivier, IV. 325. Rousseau, Description du pachalick de Bagdad.

† Djehan Numa, p. 1286. MS. translation.

‡ Pietro de la Valle, Olivier, Otter, etc.

§ Mannert, Géographie des Grecs et des Romains, t. V. p. I. p. 397, 403, *sqq.*

‖ P. de la Valle, Viaggi, lett. 17. Olivier IV. 403.

The whole country is strewed over with the debris of Grecian, Roman, and Arabian towns, confounded in the same mass of rubbish. In the eighth century, the towns of Samarah, Harounieh, and Djasserik, formed, so to speak, one street of twenty-eight miles. Their ruins, as seen by Tavernier, bear testimony to the truth of this account.*

Ruins of Babylon.

None of these cities, however, made any approach in magnificence to the celebrated Babylon, the remains of which occupy a whole district in the environs of Helleh. Built of bricks cemented with bitumen, the buildings of this city, which, in the first century of the vulgar era, was a deserted place, cohering in large masses in their fall, have formed hillocks which the drifted earth collected by length of time has smoothed over and almost effaced. Daily, however, quantities of bricks are dug out bearing inscriptions; some in relief are dated in the Arabian era; others in hollow letters belonging to the ancient Babylonians. These bricks are still the subject of many learned discussions.† Helleh, a flourishing manufacturing town, of considerable size, agreeably situated in a forest of palms, seems to be entirely built of bricks taken from the ruins of Babylon. The famous tower of Nimrod, a large square mass of ruinous walls, is six miles from Helleh; a circumstance which, when we consider the immense extent of Babylon, is not inconsistent with the belief that this is the ancient temple of Belus.

Helleh.

Meshed, Ali, and Housein.

On the west of Helleh, there are two towns, which, in the eyes of the Persians, and all the Shiites, are rendered sacred by the memory of two of the greatest martyrs of that sect. These are Meshed Ali and Meshed Housein, lately filled with riches accumulated by the devotion of the Persians, but carried off by the ferocious Wahabees to the

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1270. Tavernier, I. II. cap. 7.

† Beauchamp, Memoire, &c. Journ. des Sçavans, 1790. Hager, Mem. sur les inscriptions Babyl. Niebuhr, in Zach, Correspondance, VII. 433. where he corrects the views given in his Travels.

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middle of their deserts. In the same part of the country, the celebrated city of Kufa, the seat of a learned school which gave to the old Arabian characters the name of Kufic, has left very inconsiderable ruins. We know not the full extent of lakes and morasses formed in this quarter by means of canals connected with the Euphrates. Tavernier seems to have followed them farther west than any traveller of our times. There is, in the direction of the Euphrates, a long succession of morasses, or, as they are called in that country, *bethaïs*, in the midst of which is the village of Djamdeh, the capital of a race of people who worship the heavenly bodies, and consider themselves as the posterity of Seth.*

Kufa.

Descending the Shat-el-Arab, formed by the junction of the two rivers, we find the low countries covered by the tide, and thus rendered barren; the more elevated grounds forming a continued forest of palms.

Bassora.

Basra or Bassora, below the junction, may be considered as an independent Arabian state, which pays to the Grand Signior an uncertain homage. The city contains from 15 to 20,000 inhabitants. Its harbour forms a station of commercial intercourse between Europe and Asia. Here the different products of India are exchanged for those of Persia. It is the point of departure of the wealthy caravans which terminate their journey in the different cities of Asiatic Turkey.†

The Arabs of Bassora are very exact in preserving the genealogy, not only of their horses, but even of their pigeons and their rams. The latter are said to be distinguished by a white ring round the tip of the ear, a mark impressed by the fingers of the prophet on the first animal of the race.‡

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1272.

† Olivier IV. near the end.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 1226.

Divisions of the Countries on the Tigris and Euphrates.

Modern Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Ancient divisions.	
Pashâlic of Kars.	Kars (Kartze)	Chorzene.	Armenia.
	Bayazid	Basenia.	
Pashâlic of Erzroom.	Erzroom (Arze)	Carina.	
	Melazkerd	Malaza.	
	Ispir	Hisperatis.	
		Acilisene.	
	Arzem	Arzanene.	
	Taro	Tauranitium, &c.	
Pashâlic of Van.	Van (Iban)	Vaspuracania.	
	Ardgis	Arsissa.	
		Moxoène.	
		Bagravandene.	
Pashâlic of Diarbekir.	Diarbekir (Amida)	Sophène.	
	Merdin (Miredis)		
	Nesibin (Nisibis)	Mygdonia.	Mesopotamia.
		Anthemusia.	
Ancient Pashâlic of Orfa, (below Bagdad.)	Orfa (Edessa)	Osrhoène.	
	Charran (Charræ)	Chalcitis.	
	Racca (Nicephorium)	Gausanitis.	
		Ancobaritis.	
Pashâlic of Mosul.	Mosûl (Labbana ?)	Acabene.	
	Irbil (Arbela)		
	Eski-Mosûl (Ninive of the Romans ?)	Assyria.	Assyria.
Koordistân.	Bedlis	Corduene, Gordyene.	
	Djezira	Gordynesia.	
	Giulamerik	Arapachitis.	
	Kara-Dgiolan.		
	Amadia	Adiabene.	
Pashâlic of Bagdat.	Bagdat (Sittace ?)	Sittacene.	Babylonia.
		Apolloniatis.	
	Helleb (Babylon)	Babylonia.	
	Bassora	Chaldæa.	

N.B. The obscurity in which the ancient and modern geography of the countries on the Euphrates is in some measure involved, does not admit of our giving synoptic descriptions in great detail; nevertheless, in order to prove that we have taken some pains to clear this part of geography from confusion, we present to the learned part of our readers the following essay upon the divisions of Armenia.

DIVISIONS OF ARMENIA,

According to the Armenian History composed by Moses of Chorené in the Fifth Century, compared with those known to the Greeks and Romans. b

Great Divisions or Provinces.	Small Divisions according to Moses.	Grecian and Roman Divisions.	Corresponding Modern Names.
I. Upper Armenia—at the head of the Euphrates.	Carina	Caranitis	Erzroom (territory.)
	Spera	Hisperatis	Isper (Town.)
	Dersane	Xerxene or Derxene c	To the south of Erzroom.
	Ekelesia	Akilisene	Egketis.
	(And five others)	Unknown.	Unknown.
II. Armenia Quarta—the ridge from Kars to Diarbekir.	Chorzene	Chorzene d	Kars.
	Hastiane	Astianene, Austanitis	Uncertain.
	Balahawitia	Bolbene?	Idem.
	Zopha	Sophene	Part of Diarbekir.
	Shadacha	Soducène?	Uncertain.
	Hansita	Asetene, Ansitene	Uncertain.
	(And three others.)	Unknown.	Unknown,

III. Alzniа—on the Tigris.	Arzne	Arzanene	Arzen c.
	Nephercerta	Uncertain	Melafarikin, town.
	(And eight others)	Unknown	Uncertain.
IV. Turuberania—between the Murad and the lake Van.	Taron	Taurunitium f	Taro.
	Harkh	(Basilissene?)	Towards the sources of the Murad.
	Corchorunia	Uncertain	Hali-Carcara.
	Beznunia	Unknown	Upon lake Van g.
	(And thirteen others)	Idem	Uncertain.
V. Moca—between the provinces III. and IV.		Moxoène	Moush, near lake Van.
	Ishensis	Isenchi	Unknown.
	(And eight others)	Uncertain	Idem.
VI. Corzæa—the north of Koordistan.	Corduza	Gordyens, Corduene	In Koordistan.
	Atrovana	Atropatène Proper	In Adjerbidjan (in Persia.)
	Garthunisia	Gordynesia	In Koordistan.
	Albacia	Unknown	Albak, town of Adjerbidjan.
	(And four others)	Idem	Uncertain.

b Pliny says that Armenia was divided into 120 Strategiæ, VII. 9. and Ptolemy names twenty-one of them. Strabo and Tacitus also give some names. Moses of Chorene points out fifteen great provinces, and 187 sub-divisions; it appears to us almost certain that he has not given a just classification of the subdivisions; and in that case all efforts to explain this distorted topography must fall to the ground; but the select results which we have extracted may elucidate both the ancient and modern geography, by showing their correspondence with each other.

c Kerxene, Strabo, p. 801. edit. Almel. Derxene. Pliny, V. 24.

d This is probably the Katarzene of Ptolemy; but the Chorzane or Chorzianene of Procopius, (de Ædif. II. 3. de Bello Pers. II. 24.) should be quite to the south of Armenia, by the side of Sophene. Mannert.

e Tac. Annal. XIV. 25.

f This lake bore the name of Beznunius, Mos. Chor. Hist. Arm. p. 31.

g Tac. Annal. XIII. 37.

Continuation of Table of Divisions of Armenia.

Great Divisions or Provinces.	Small Divisions according to Moses.	Grecian and Roman Divisions.	Corresponding Modern Names.
VII. Persarmenia—a part of Adjerbidjan.	Maria	Marundæ [k]	Merend, (Persian.)
	Zarchuwan	Unknown	Zorova.
	And others	Idem	Uncertain.
VIII. Vaspurcania—the Vaspuracan of modern maps, with a great part of Erivan.	Iban, capital [i]	Uncertain	Van.
	Argissakovita	Arsisa	Argis Territory.
	Artazaca	Artaxata	Uncertain.
	Golthène	Colthène	Idem.
	Naxuana	Naxuana	Nachtchiwan.
	And thirty-one others	Unknown	Uncertain.
IX. Syria—the Siunikh.		Unknown	Siunikh, a district to the south-west of the lake Erivan.
	Sissacene	Sibacene?	Uncertain.
	And nine others	Unknown	Idem.
X. Arsacha—to the south and east of lake Erivan.	Irania major	Uncertain	Erivan, called also Iran.
	Muchania	Idem	Moghan?
	And twelve others	Idem	Uncertain.
XI. Phætacarania—to the south of the former.	Bagawene	Bagravandene	In Adjerbidjan.
	Aleuane [k]	Unknown	
	And ten others	Idem	
XII. Utia—on the river Harpasu, the ancient Usis. [l]	Utia proper	Otene [m]	In Erivan.
	Shicassene	Sacassene	Uncertain.
	And six others	Unknown	Idem.

XIII. Gugaria *n*—in Georgia.	. . . . .	Gasarene	Gurgistan.
	Colbophoria	Cholobetene	Unknown.
	Threlia	Uncertain	Trialetia, (Georgia.)
	Gangaria	Gangara *o*	Uncertain.
	Taschira	Unknown	Taschir, (Georgia.)
	Artavania	Idem	Artawand, (Georgia.)
	Zavachia	Idem	Zavach, (Georgia.)
	And three others	Idem	Uncertain.
XIV. Taya—in Georgia?	Colba	Cholua *p*	In the Upper Koor.
	Asurta	Surta *q*	Idem.
	And six others	Uncertain	Uncertain.
XV. Araratia—round the Ararat.	Basenia	Unknown	Pasin-Sufia?
	Arsarunia	Idem	Upon the Araxes to the N. of Eschmiazin.
	Siracia	Idem *r*	Upon the Sanki.
	Bagrevanda *s*	Bagravandene?	Uncertain.
	Vanandia	Phanene?	Idem.
	Malaza	Uncertain	Melazkerd—town.
	And fourteen others . . .	Idem	Uncertain.

h Ptolemy places these people upon the lake of Urmia, (Wahl.)

i Cedrenus is the first who names this town, Iban pronounced Iwan, synonymous with Van.

k Notwithstanding the similarity of names, the position will not permit us to regard it as the Aluanis of Ptolemy on the Chaboras.

l MMS. of Pliny, VI. 9. (Mannert.)

m Pliny VI. 13. Stephan. Byzant, *in voce.*

n From the position of the cantons known to belong to this province, we cannot avoid recognizing in Gugaria, a corruption of Kurgia or Gurgistan, names given to Georgia. (Wahl.)

o A town of Albania Ptolem. edit. of Erasmus.

p According to Ptolemy, a town on the southern arm of the Phasis; but this arm appears to be the upper part of the Koor or Cyrus.

q A town on the Phasis.

r The distances prevent us from placing the Siraces here, a people on the north of Caucasus.

s The position prevents us from recognizing in this canton the Bagravandene of the ancients, notwithstanding the resemblance of the names.

BOOK XXVIII.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

PART III.

Syria and Palestine.

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THOSE countries belonging to Asiatic Turkey which remain to be described, have so frequently attracted the attention of travellers, that a large library might be formed of the accounts of them which have been published. Two or three pages would scarcely contain the names of the pilgrims who have left journals of their travels in the Holy Land, works full of repetition and puerility, yet claiming the examination of the enlightened critic. From these, compared with the writings of Abulfeda and Josephus, the learned Busching has formed an excellent geographical treatise. In modern times we have judicious missionaries, such as Dandini; antiquaries as Wood; and naturalists as Maundrell and Hasselquist who have ably elucidated particular parts of these countries. It was reserved for the genius of Volney to combine these detached accounts with the fruits of his own observation and study, so as to present the world with a complete description of Syria. As the nature of the present work does not admit of minute topographical descriptions, we may, in a general way, refer for such details to the researches of Busching and of Volney.

Works on Syria.

Boundaries.

On the north-east, Syria is bounded by the Euphrates: on the north, by Mount Amanus, the modern Almadagh; on the west, by the Mediterranean; on the east, its deserts and those of Arabia are confounded, no constant frontier line having been pointed out either by the ancients or the moderns. Among the ancients, Palmyra, Damascus, and the Dead Sea were the extreme points of this country. By the moderns the ruins of Palmyra are considered as belonging to Arabia Deserta.* In the midst of a similar uncertainty on the south, a straight line drawn from the end of the Dead Sea to the mouth of the small stream of El-Arish, offers the only boundary that can be assigned between Syria on the one hand and Arabia Petræa and Egypt on the other.

Names.

The original name given to this country by the inhabitants was *Aram*, whence the Arimi of Homer. The Arabs call it *Bar-el-sham*, "the shore on the left," in contradistinction to Yemen, or the country on the right. These denominations refer to the position of Mecca, and proceed on the idea that Syria forms a part of Arabia.*

Mountains.

The mountains of Syria are not all ramifications of Mount Taurus. Mount Rossus, a prolongation from Amanus, terminates at the valley of Orontes. Other heights skirt the Euphrates, and extend towards Palmyra. But the proper Syrian chain begins on the south of Antioch, by the huge peak of Mount Casius, which shoots up to the heavens its needle-like point, encircled with forests.† The same chain, under various names, follows the direction of the shore of the Mediterranean, being in general at no greater distance than twenty or twenty-four miles from the sea. Mount Libanus forms its most elevated summit. This chain, which extends between the parallels of Acre and of Tripoli, and the summit of which, called Hermon in Scripture, is between Damascus and Heliopolis, is divided into two, one on the west, which looks to the Mediterranean, and the other on the east, which bounds the

* Herod. II. 12.

† Ammian. Marcell, XXII. ch. 33.

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plains of Damascus. This last received from the Syrian Greeks the name of Anti-Libanus, a name unknown among the natives, and which, being employed somewhat arbitrarily by historians, has given rise to unprofitable discussions.* Libanus and all the mountains of Syria present fréquent ruins of towers and fortified places. They are composed of a calcareous rock, whitish, hard, and ringing when struck. The granite scarcely begins to make its appearance till we come to the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai and the Red Sea. Near Damascus there are immense caverns, one of which is capable of containing 4000 men.

Traces of volcanoes.

The valley of Jordan offers many traces of volcanoes. The bituminous and sulphurous water of Lake Asphaltites, the lavas and pumice thrown out on its banks, and the warm bath of Tabarieh, show that this valley has been the theatre of a fire not yet extinguished. Volumes of smoke are often observed to escape from Lake Asphaltites, and new crevices are found on its margin. Strabo says, that according to the local tradition of the country, the site of this lake was once occupied by thirteen flourishing and populous towns, which were swallowed up by an earthquake. He states, however, that this catastrophe was ascribed by the philosopher Eratosthenes to a simple subsiding of the surface. The eruptions have long ceased, but the earthquakes, which form to them a sort of interludes, sometimes still occur in this district. That coast in general is subject to them, and several instances are recorded in history, which have produced marked revolutions on the surface of Antiochia, Laodicea, Tripoli, Beryta, Sidon, and Tyre. So lately as 1759, one of them occurred, which was productive of extensive devastations. We are told that more than 20,000 lives were destroyed by it in the valley of Balbec. The losses thus occasioned are not yet repaired. It is observed that the earthquakes of Syria are

Earthquakes.

* Reland, Palæstina. Busching, Asia, I. 245, *sqq.* Mannert, Géographie des Grecs et des Romains, VI. part I. 341, &c.

† Volney, Travels in Syria, I. 272.

‡ Strabo, XVI. p. 226. edit. Atrebat.

almost wholly confined to the winter season after the autumnal rains. BOOK XXVIII.

Rivers.

The Orontes and Jordan both have their rise on Mount Libanus; the former runs to the north, the latter to the south. The Orontes is undoubtedly the first of the Syrian rivers; yet were it not for the numerous bars which dam up its waters, it would be completely dry in summer. The water thus retained requires the aid of machinery to raise it for the supply of the adjoining plains. Hence it has received the modern name of *Asi* or the Obstinate.* The Jordan, which Voltaire treats with contempt, is represented by Pliny the naturalist as a fine limpid river, large enough for the valley which it waters; and the same account is given of it by the greater part of travellers. Among the other rivers, which in general are only entitled to the names of rivulets, the Casmy or Casimir, to the north of Tyre, seems to be the Leontes of the ancients; the Nahar-el-kebir is the Eleutherus, the boundary of Phœnicia, where, according to a fabulous tradition, the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa perished.

Lakes.

The numerous traverse barriers which stop the waters of the Syrian rivers, give origin to many lakes. The valley of the Orontes contains the *Bahar-el-Kades* near Hems, the lake of Apamea, through which the river flows, and that of Antioch.

Lakes without an outlet.

In the eastern and southern districts there are lakes without any outlet. Such are the lake of Acla, and that of Old Aleppo, both of which are saline. The lake called El-margi, or the like of the meadows, not far from Damascus, resembles the selenitic waters of the neighbouring mountains. The most celebrated of them all, lake Asphaltites, or the *Dead Sea*, has probably always been, as it now is, without any communication with the sea.

Climate.

Syria has three distinct climates. The summits of Libanus covered with snow, diffuse a salubrious coolness through the interior; while the maritime low situations

* Abulfeda, tab. Syriæ, p. 150. Kœhler's edition.

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are constantly subjected to heat, accompanied with humidity; and the adjoining plains of Arabia Deserta are exposed to a dry and scorching heat. The seasons and the productions consequently vary. In the mountains the order of the seasons very nearly resembles that of the middle of France; the winter, lasting from November to March, is sharp and rigorous. No year passes without falls of snow, which often cover the surface to the depth of several feet during entire months. The spring and autumn are agreeable, and the summer not oppressive. In the plains, on the contrary, as soon as the sun has passed the equator, a sudden transition takes place to overpowering heats, which continue till October. But, to compensate for this, the winter is so temperate, that orange trees, dates, bananas, and other delicate fruits, grow in the open field. Thus the space of a few hours forms the transition from spring to winter.*

Fertility.

If the advantages of nature were duly seconded by the efforts of human art, we might, in a space of twenty leagues, bring together in Syria the vegetable riches of the most distant countries. Besides wheat, rye, barley, beans, and the cotton plant, which are cultivated every where, there are several objects of utility or pleasure peculiar to different localities. Palestine abounds in sesamum, which affords oil; and in doura, similar to that of Egypt. Maize thrives in the light soil of Balbec, and rice is cultivated with success along the marsh of Haoulé. Within these twenty years sugar canes have been introduced into the gardens of Saide and Bairout, which equal those of the Delta. Indigo grows without culture on the banks of Jordan, in the country of Basan, and only requires a little care to acquire a good quality. The hills of Latakié produce tobacco, which creates a commercial intercourse with Damietta and Cairo. This crop is at present cultivated in all the mountains. As for trees, the olive of Provence grows at Antioch and Ramli to the height of the

* Volney, I. 284, &c.

oak. The white mulberry forms the riches of the country of the Druses, by the beautiful silks which are obtained from it; and the vine, raised on poles, or creeping along the ground, furnishes red and white wines equal to those of Bourdeaux. Jaffa boasts her lemons, and her watermelons; Gama possesses both the dates of Mecca, and the pomegranates of Algiers. Tripoli has oranges equal to those of Malta; Bairout has figs like Marseilles, and bananas like St. Domingo. Aleppo is unequalled for pistachio-nuts; and Damascus possesses all the fruits of Europe; apples, plums, and peaches, grow with equal facility on her rocky soil.* Niebuhr is of opinion that the Arabian coffee-shrub might be cultivated in Palestine.

Syria produces all our domestic animals, to which are added the buffalo and the camel. The gazels occupy the place of our deer: for wolves it has jackals, hyenas, and ounces; which last have sometimes been mistaken for tigers. None of these ferocious animals occasion ravages equal to those of the locust. An unusually mild winter generates this animal in swarms in the deserts of Arabia. Their armies, which darken the sky, fall down on the plains of Syria. Grass, foliage, and every description of vegetation, are completely consumed in their track. The approach of these formidable swarms spreads universal terror, and their visit is followed by certain famine. The sole hope of the Syrian, under this calamity, is in a bird called *samarmar*, which devours the insects, and the south-east winds, which drive them into the waters of the Mediterranean. There is a species of locusts which furnishes a tolerable article of food to man.† Animals. Locusts.

Syria, successively invaded by the Persians, the Greeks, the Arabs, the Crusaders, and the Turks, presents a very mixed population. The original inhabitants, amalgamated with the Greeks, form a very small proportion of the whole. Inhabitants.

* Volney, II. 127, 153, 164, 230.

† Hasselquist, Travels in Palestine. Ludolf. Dissert. de Locustis, in Historia Æthiop.

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All civil and military employments are in the hands of the Turks. A great many Arabs are settled as cultivators. There are likewise many Bedouin or wandering Arabs, especially in the pashâlic of Damascus. In that of Aleppo there are hordes of Turcomans and Koords. The Druses, the Motoualis, the Ansarié, and the Maronites, constitute small nations which will be particularly described in the proper place. The old Syrian language is only spoken in a few districts, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Damascus and Mount Libanus, and in less purity than in Mesopotamia, at Orfa, and at Harran.* The Arabic predominates both in the country and the towns. The Nabathean language is a corrupt mixture of Syriac and Chaldee, spoken by the peasantry or Nabayoth. Of the different Christian sects tolerated in this country, those of the Greek church are the most numerous. The nickname of Melchites, or royalists, which is given to them, is a relic of the bad policy of the Byzantine emperors, who intermeddled with theological disputes. The Jacobites have many adherents. The Maronites are connected with the church of Rome. The religion of the Druses, and still more that of the Ansarié, consist of a mixture of old Syrian faiths, and some principles of the Mahometan system. The Motoualis follow the doctrines of Ali, which the Turks hold in detestation. In addition to these are the Chinganés or Bohemians;† and the Bedouin Arabs, who, if they have any religious principles, have at least no forms of worship. There are also some European Christians, Jews, Armenians, and Nestorians. In fact, no country furnishes a more ample collection of opposite religions. The different sects of Christians and Mahometans rival one another in the apparent fervour of their devotional zeal. This mass of population, so varied in their genealogy and their religious belief, are viewed as under the go-

Language.

Religions.

Government.

* Authors quoted in Adelung's Mithridates, I. p. 333—341.

† Olivier, Voyage dans l'Empire, Ottoman IV. 193.

vernment of four Turkish pashâs. The pasha of Aleppo has, within the boundaries of his government, hordes of Turcomans and Koords, who are scarcely at all subjected to him. That of Damascus pays to the sheiks of the Arab tribes, in the name of the Sultan, sums of money which have been presented to him in a piece of cloth; hence named *chourrah-es-sultân*, or Sultân's cloth.* In fine, the pashâs of Tripoli and of Seyde or Acre, have provinces almost entirely consisting of Maronites, Druses, and other independent tribes. The anarchy consequent on this political situation assumes different aspects, according to the character and conduct of the pashâs themselves, the emirs of the Druses, and the Arabian sheiks. Enterprizing chiefs erect independent states for a moment: yet Syria always returns under the unsteady yoke of the Turks. The unhappy condition of the people continues unchanged. The agriculturist is continually pillaged by the authorized robberies of the pashâ, and the predatory attacks of the Arabs. The traveller can only have his choice of different bands of robbers for his escort. Art and industry languish for want of vigour and of information. Commerce, exposed to arbitrary vexation, is confined to timid bargains, or consigned to all the risks of caravans. Such is the deplorable condition of a country, rich in its soil, important in its local position, and which might, by a new crusade, be easily wrested from the grasp of its barbarous oppressors.

Independent tribes.

Habitual state of the country.

Let us examine now the most remarkable localities, beginning by the tract on the Euphrates, or the pashâlic of Aleppo. The city of this name, which, according to the Byzantine history, is undoubtedly the ancient Berœa,† has the superiority among the cities of Asiatic Turkey, both in the cultivated character of the inhabitants, in size, and in opulence. Its population is estimated at upwards

Pashâlic of Aleppo.

City.

* Seetzen, Annales des Voyages, VIII. 284.

† See the authors quoted by Harduin in his Notes on Pliny, V. 23.

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of 150,000.* The buildings are of hewn stone, with which also the streets are paved. The dark foliage of the cypress, forming a contrast with the dazzling whiteness of the numerous minarets, produces a highly picturesque effect. The silk and cotton manufactures are in a flourishing condition. The large caravans of Bagdat and of Bassora bring hither the productions of Persia and of India. Aleppo is the modern Palmyra. The environs, planted with vines and olives, produce wheat in great abundance: but the Arabs and Turcomans, living by plunder, carry off the property earned by the toil of the labourer. The water, being somewhat brackish, probably generates the slight complaint endemic in this place, called the *Aleppo boil*.†

In ascending the river Kowaïk, which runs along the walls of Aleppo, and has no outlet into the sea, we find on the sides of Mount Taurus the large city of Aintab, the houses of which, arranged in the form of an amphitheatre, are in terraces, on which we pass from streets which are covered with glass. This district is rich in apple trees and vineyards.‡ The Turkish is the only language spoken. At Bir, a small town a little to the east, is the common passage of the Euphrates. To the south of Bir are the handsome ruins of Hieropolis, now known under the old Syrian name Mabog, pronounced Mambedge. The walls, still standing, attest the ancient greatness of this city, sacred to the worship of the Phenician goddess Astarte, called in Scripture the queen of heaven, and the goddess of the Sidonians.§

Ruins of Hieropolis.

The deserts which, in our day, extend from Mabog to Palmyra, were in former times subjected to cultivation, and formed the province of Chalybonitis, the capital of which, Chalybon, seems to differ from Aleppo.

Antioch.

The famous city of Antioch, once greater and richer

* Seetzen in Zach, Correspondance, XI. p. 364.

† Maundrell's Natural History of Aleppo. Olivier, IV. 178.

‡ Rauwolf, quoted by Busching.

§ Pococke.

than Rome itself, but often ruined, and finally razed by the Mamelukes in 1269, is now only a small town full of gardens, known by the name of Antakia. The port of Scanderoon or Alexandretta, frequented by Europeans, has a most deadly climate. The pigeons of that place are celebrated over all the East. They were formerly employed as the carriers of dispatches to Aleppo, of which Alexandretta is the nearest harbour. The intermediate mountains are filled with towns and villages. In those of Kesfin and Martaouan the women carry their hospitality as far as those of Babylon of old. This authorised prostitution seems to be a remnant of old Asiatic superstitions.* The yellow and white jessamines perfume the hills of Casius. From a distance we distinguish two species of juniper,† which almost equal the cyprus in height: the pines, the larches, the oaks, the box trees, the laurels, the yews, and the myrtles, conceal on every hand the aridity of the rocks.

Scanderoon.

Following the banks of the Orontes or El-Aasi, we find the remains of two cities celebrated in their day, Apamea, now Aphamieh and Hems, the ancient Emesa, where a black stone was the object of adoration in a famous temple, of which no ruins are now to be seen. Hamath has regained the importance which it possessed in the times of the Hebrews. This commercial city was the native place of Albulfeda, an Arabian prince and geographer, who boasts much of the fertility and the high cultivation of the countries watered by the Orontes.‡

Apamea, Hamath, &c.

From Hamath, or rather from Famieh, an ancient Roman road leads to Palmyra, the Tadmor of Solomon, and the residence of the immortal Zenobia, and the elegant Longinus. This ancient city is 180 miles to the south-east of Aleppo, and an equal distance from Damascus, in a small district surrounded with deserts. The eye of

Palmyra.

* See the memoir of Heyne, in the Annales des Voyages, XIII.

† Juniperus drupacia and oxyedrus of Linnæus.

‡ Abulfeda, Tab. Syriæ, 104, 108, etc.

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the traveller is all at once arrested by a vast assemblage of ruins; arches, vaults, temples, and porticos, appear on every hand: one colonnade, 4000 feet long, is terminated by a beautiful mausoleum. Time has partially preserved the peristyles, the intercolumnations and tablatures; the elegance of the design equals throughout the richness of the materials.* These magnificent ruins present a sad contrast with the hovels of wild Arabs, now the only inhabitants of a city which in former times emulated Rome. Every spot of ground intervening between the walls and columns is laid out in plantations of corn and olives, inclosed by mud walls. There are two rivers, the waters of which, when judiciously distributed, must have conduced greatly to the subsistence and comfort of the ancient inhabitants, but are now allowed to lose themselves in the sand.

Pashâlics of Tripoli and Acre.

Having taken a survey of those parts of Syria which lie on the Euphrates and the Orontes, we proceed to the sea shore, to the two pashâlics of Tripoli and Acre, comprehending Phœnicia and a part of Cœlosyria,† and some other little ancient divisions. The heat and moisture which render this country dangerous to European constitutions, maintain at the same time a rich vegetation; oranges, lemons, and pomegranates, form cheerful groves at the bottom of the mountains, which project in various directions, forming landscapes highly picturesque. Notwithstanding the want of cultivation, it is still what Ammianus Marcellinus calls it, "a country full of charms and graces." Latikié or Latakié, the ancient *Laodicea-ad-mare*, is a flourishing commercial city; it exports tobacco. After being entirely ruined, it was rebuilt by a Turkish Aga.‡ It is thus a curiosity in its kind, indebted for its renewal to a race of people who usually confine their exertions to the work of destruction. The island of Ruad formerly con-

Maritime districts.

* Wood and Dawkins, on the Ruins of Palmyra.

† Volney, II. 156.

‡ Maundrell's Journey from Aleppo, p. 11. Korte in Paul's Collection of Travels in the East, II. 131.

tained the city of Aradus, the houses of which, like those of many towns in Europe, had five or six stories. Liberty and trade drew to it an immense population. At the present day the island is deserted, and presents not so much as a fragment of ruin, nor has tradition preserved any accounts of the spring of fresh water which the Aradians discovered in the middle of the sea.* Tripoli is named Tarabolos in the Turkish and Arabic languages. It is a great commercial city, though its harbour, like the others on this coast, is inconvenient and unsafe. It exports silks, cottons, and potash. Batroon and Gebail are the ports of the countries of the Maronites; the latter being the ancient Byblos. A short way from this place is the river once named the Adonis, but now the Ibrahim-Pasha, the waters of which are red, not with the blood of the favourite of Venus, but with the red-coloured earth which, at certain times of the year, they hold in suspension.† The ancient Berytus now Bairut, is the place where the cottons and silks of the Druses are shipped. Here are to be seen the remains of an elegant palace built by the famous Emir Facardin. The town, surrounded by splendid plantations of mulberry trees, enjoys a healthful climate.‡

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Tripoli.

River Adonis.

The ancient Sidon, mother of the Phenician cities, is now a town of 7000 or 8000 inhabitants, under the name of Seyde. It is the principal port of Damascus. The harbour, like all the others on this coast, was formed with much art, and at immense expense, by means of long piers. These works, which still subsisted under the lower empire,§ and the harbour, are now fallen to decay. The Emir Facardin, who dreaded the visits of the Turkish fleets, completed the destruction of the famous harbours of Phœnicia. A fate still more desolating has overtaken Tyre, the queen of the seas,

Seyde.

Tyre.

* Volney, II. 161. Yet Shaw, Maundrell, and Pococke, found some ruins.

† Lucian, de Dea Syria. Maundrell's Journey, p. 35.

‡ Olivier, Voyage II. 26.

§ Achill. Tat. I. p. 1.

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the birth place of commerce, by which an early civilization was diffused. Her palaces are supplanted by miserable hovels. The poor fisherman inhabits those vaulted cellars where the treasures of the world were in ancient times stored. A column, still standing in the midst of the ruins, points out the site of the choir of the cathedral consecrated by Eusebius.* The sea, which usually destroys artificial structures, has not only spared, but has enlarged, and converted into a solid isthmus, the mound by which Alexander joined the isle of Tyre to the continent.

Acre.

Acre, or St. Jean d'Acre, celebrated under this name in the history of the crusades, and in antiquity known by the name of Ptolemais, had, by the middle of the eighteenth century, been almost entirely forsaken, when Sheik Daher, the Arab rebel, restored its commerce and navigation. This able prince, whose sway comprehended the whole of ancient Galilee, was succeeded by the famous tyrant Djezar-Pashâ, who fortified Acre, and adorned it with a mosque, enriched with columns of antique marble, collected from all the neighbouring cities. The harbour, which has fallen down, was one of the best in this part of the Levant. In the history of modern warfare, it has acquired celebrity as the scene of a sanguinary struggle, in the years 1798-9, between the French army of the East under Bonaparte, and the troops belonging to a British squadron under Commodore Sir Sidney Smith, in which the latter, by their persevering bravery, proved successful in repressing the progress of that conquering force.

Country of the Nassarians.

Leaving these burning shores, we now proceed to take a rapid survey of the mountainous country by which they are overlooked. That which extends from Antioch to the river called Nahar-el-kebir, is inhabited by the Nassarians or Ansariets, whom those who are best informed in the language and history of the east consider as a Mahomedan sect, founded in the seventh century by one Nassar,†

* Maundrell's Journey, p. 50. Euseb. Eccles. Hist. X. 4.

† Tyschen's Memoir on the Nassarians, in the Memorabilia of Paulus, IV. Niebuhr's Travels. Catéchisme des Druses, in Eichhorn, Répertoire oriental, XII. 129, 174.

but who, according to a passage of Pliny,* as pointed out by the judicious Mannert, appear to be an ancient Syrian race, who even under the Romans had a tetrarch of their own. It was in this same country that the crusaders found the famous nation called the Assassins, governed by the "old man of the mountain," a prince rendered formidable by the blind zeal of his subjects, who, at his command, put to death every person whom he designated as a victim, whom he scrupled not to select occasionally from the throne itself. When the Assassin himself lost his life in these bloody expeditions, he was led to retain the firm persuasion that the nymphs of Paradise, who were made known to him in a vision, held forth their arms to receive him to their celestial embraces. Burchard or Brocard, author of a well known book of travels in the Holy Land, went over the country of the Assassins in the thirteenth century, and found it extremely fertile and highly cultivated.† It is not easy to come to an accurate conclusion amidst the different solutions which have been given of this enigma in history. We incline to believe with the learned M. Saci, that the name Assassin, derived from *hashish*, an intoxicating plant, had been given to an Arabian tribe among whom this plant was used to stimulate their courage. The old man of the mountain, means an Arab sheik, this word signifying an elderly person. It would still be practicable for an Arabian chief to employ the arm of a fanatical adherent for the murder of a monarch in the midst of his court, to gratify that bloody vengeance which forms a hereditary appetite in that nation. Such are the known facts. The rest is probably the offspring of imagination.

The Assassins.

Next to the country of the Ansarieh, Mount Libanus raises its summits to the clouds, still shaded with some cedars and beautified with thousands of rare plants. Here the Astragalus tragacanthoides displays its clusters of pur-

Mount Libanus.

* Apamiam Marsyâ amne divisam à Nazarinorum Tetrarchiâ. Plin. V. 23.

† Burchard, Descriptio Terræ Sanctæ, in fine.

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ple flowers. The primrose of Libanus, the mountain amaryllis, the white and the orange lily, mingle their brilliant hues with the verdure of the birch-leaved cherry.* The snow of the mountain is skirted by the *Xeranthemum frigidum*. There is but little variety in the rocks of this great Syrian chain. They chiefly consist of a brown calcareous stone. In the valleys we meet with argillaceous schistus, trap, and friable sandstone. Puddingstone, and frequently calcareous conglomerates, are also met with. A piece of yellow amber has been found here imbedded in a hard calcareous rock. Nitre is abundant; alum and vitriols are less frequent. The only metal found is iron.† The deep ravines of these mountains are watered by numerous streams, which arise on all sides in great abundance.‡ The highest of the valleys are covered with perpetual snow. Arvieux and Pococke found the snow lying here in the month of June; Rauwolf and Kort in August. But it does not appear that any of the exposed peaks are covered with snow. The coolness, the humidity, and the good quality of the soil, maintain here a perpetual verdure. These bounties of nature are protected by the spirit of liberty. It is to an industry less harassed by predatory encroachments than that of the other districts of Syria, that the hills of Lebanon owe those fine terraces in long succession, which preserve the fertile earth; those well planted vineyards; those fields of wheat, reared by the industrious hand of the husbandman; those plantations of cotton, of olives, and of mulberries, which present themselves every where in the midst of the rocky steeps, and give a pleasing example of the effects of human activity.§ The clusters of grapes are enormous, and the grapes themselves as large as cherries. Goats, squirrels, partridges, and turtle-doves, are the most numerous animal species. All of them become a frequent prey to the pouncings of the eagle, and the prowlings of the panther. This last

* Prunus prostrata.

† Seetzen, Correspondance de Zach, XII. 551.

‡ Korte's Travels in Palestine, in German, p. 458.

§ Dandini's Travels to Mount Lebanon, (French Translation) p. 76—86.

is the animal which is here called the tiger.* These retreats, secured from warlike invasion, but unfortunately accessible to the intrigues of Turkish pashâs, are inhabited by two races, differing in religion and in manners, but similar in their love of independence, the Maronites and the Druses.

Kesraouan and the Maronites.

The country of the former is called Kesraouan, the Cas-travan of the historians of the crusades. It reaches from the river Kebir to the Kelb. The Maronites, amounting to 120,000, dwell in villages and hamlets. The convent Kanobin, the residence of their patriarch, may be considered as their capital. They export their own corn, their wine, and their cotton, by Tripoli and Djebil. Distinguished into two classes, the common people and the sheiks or upper ranks, they all cultivate the ground with their own hands; all live economically in the bosoms of their virtuous families, under a rustic roof, where the Christian traveller uniformly meets with a hospitable reception.

Christian Worship.

The ringing of bells, and the display of processions, proclaim the liberty enjoyed in this district by the Christian worship. There are 200 convents, in which the discipline of St. Anthony is rigidly observed. There are numbers of individuals who lead the lives of hermits in the caverns of the mountains.† The Maronites, though connected with the Roman Church, having renounced the heresy of Maro their founder, maintain the old institution of marriage among their priesthood. The fervour of devotion which pervades this people recalls to us the ideas of the primitive church. An imposing superstition has consecrated a cedar forest, which is said to have furnished the timber of Solomon's temple. Only twenty large cedars remain, and this old vegetable race verges fast to its extinction.‡ Every year, on transfiguration day, the Greeks,

* Schulze, dans Paulus, Collect. des Voyages, VII. 202.

† Dandini's Travels to Mount Lebanon, passim.

‡ Bellonius, in 1550, makes them twenty-eight. Rauwolf in 1575, twenty-four. Thevenot and others in 1660, make them twenty-three. Maundrell in 1696, sixteen. Pere Queux in 1721, twelve. Schultz in 1755, makes them twenty.

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the Armenians, and the Maronites, celebrate a mass on an altar of rough stones raised at the roots of these venerable trees.*

Country of the Druses.

The Druses, also 120,000 in number, live to the south of the Maronites. Their country has several subdivisions, differing from one another in their soil and productions. Matné, on the north, has rich iron mines in the midst of its rocks. Garb, next in order, has fine forests of firs. Sahel, or the flat country adjoining the sea, produces mulberries and vines. Chouf, in the centre, is distinguished by silks of inferior quality. Tefa, or the apple district, is on the south. Chagif excels in tobacco. The highest and coldest region is called Djoord; to this the shepherds retire with their flocks in summer.† The Emir, or prince of the Druses, resides in a town called Deir-el-kamar in the subdivision of Chouf. It is by religious peculiarities that this people is separated from the other inhabitants of Syria. Long unknown to Europeans, kept exclusively in the hands of the Okals or teachers, their system is now known by the publication of some doctrinal books in the Arabic language, the style of which is remarkably obscure.‡ The Druses believe in one God, who for the last time showed himself in human form in the person of Hakem, Calif of Egypt, in 1030. Persuaded that all other systems of belief will finally be united in that which they profess, they regard them all with equal indifference, although the Christians have considered them as entertaining a marked contempt for the Mahometan religion. This system of deism has some traces of doctrines of a more remote antiquity, such as the transmigration of souls, and the worship of a calf,§ whence it has been judiciously con-

Religion of the Druses.

* Korte, p. 421. Dandini, p. 75.

† Volney's Travels, II. 173.

‡ Alder, Musæum Kuficum Borgianum, (Rome) 1782. Eichhorn's Repertory, XII. art. 4. Adler, ibid. XV. 8. Bruns Dissertation, XVII. 2. Paul. Memorab. l. 8, 9. Venture, in the Annales des Voyages, IV. 325. *sqq.*

§ Mariti Istoria de Facardino. Niebuhr's Travels.

jectured that the Druses, as a political body, existed prior to the time of the Caliph Hakem and his prophet Hamzah. This conjecture assumes a character of great probability, when we compare the passages in which the Hebrews mention a nation of *Iturs*,* those in which the Greeks and Romans celebrate the invincible bravery of the *Ituræi*, who were the masters of Libanus from Beryte to Damascus,† and the testimony of a modern traveller, according to whom, the real name of the Druses was *Durzi*, or *Turzi*.‡ Hence we are induced to think, that the ancient Ituræi have always maintained a sort of political independence in the midst of the revolutions of Syria, and that the doctrines of Hakem only gave fresh energy to a society already existing. Whatever credit this hypothesis may receive, the Druses, though a small body, was the only race in the Turkish empire that gave a good specimen of the dignity of human nature. Republicans in austerity of manners, always either dreaded as rebels, or respected as free vassals by the neighbouring pashâs, they acknowledge the authority of a hereditary prince. Several families enjoy peculiar honours, but a noble simplicity gives them a unity of character in the social state. Invincible in the mountains, they are ignorant of the art of fighting in the plain. Their fidelity is equal to their courage; they never prove treacherous to the unfortunate who throws himself on their protection; but they fail not to revenge blood by blood; and the satellites of their emirs, have, like those of the assassins of old, been known to inflict death on the enemies of their masters in the midst of populous cities.§ Jealousy respecting females is carried

Origin of the Druses.

Manners, and government.

* Paralip. I. cap. 1. v. 3. cap. 5. v. 19. Josephus XIII. 19.

† Plin. V. 23. Strabo, XVI. p. 1093,-1096. Cic. Philip, II. 8-44, Dion. Cas. XXXIX. 5-59. Appian. Bell. Civ. V. 10.

‡ Niebuhr.

§ Venture, Ann. des Voyages, IV. 345.

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among them to an extreme. An inviolable veil screens from all profane curiosity the attractions of their women, who are said to be very handsome, and actuated by the lofty sentiments of the dames of Lacedemon. The husband cannot listen without uneasiness to any encomiums passed upon his wife, and any animated eulogy from the mouth of a stranger exposes the Drusean lady to the danger of death itself.* Agriculture and politics form the subject of conversation of the Druses; collected round the doors of their cottages, the children themselves listen in silence to the rustic assembly, and, untaught to read, devote themselves with enthusiasm to warlike exercises.

Motualis.

The Motualis, first mentioned by Arvieux,† occupy the great valley which divides the two principal chains of Libanus, the easternmost of which is called by some of the moderns Anti-Libanus. These are ancient Syrians who have embraced the doctrines of the Mahometan Shi-ites. The respect which they manifest for the Calif Ali almost amounts to religious worship. Governed, like the Druses, their habitual rivals, by sheiks and emirs, they render themselves formidable to the Turks. Their cavalry was once considered as invincible; but they have been singularly weakened by intestine discord. In their country Balbec is situated, a town containing 5000 souls, and which is, as it were, buried among the ruins of the ancient Heliopolis. The porch of the temple of the sun, though disfigured by two Turkish towers, is a structure of exquisite beauty. The stone of which the temple is built was brought from the neighbouring quarry, at the bottom of which there is a single stone still lying, sixty-six feet in length, fourteen in breadth, and fourteen feet six inches in thickness. Blocks of this size show the grandeur of the architecture of the edifices for which they were employed.

Ruins of Heliopolis.

* Niebuhr and Arvieux.

† Though Volney says otherwise, II. 79.

On the eastern base of Libanus is the fertile plain watered by numerous streams, where the ancient city of Damascus stands, the Demeshk, or Sham-el-Demeshy of the orientalists. This city was once famous for the manufacture of sabres, which appear to have been made of thin laminæ of steel and iron welded together so as to unite great flexibility with a keen edge. The art of making them is lost, since Tamerlane carried off the artisans to Persia. Sabres are still made here, but of inferior quality. It has a manufacture of excellent soap, and of stuffs made of a mixture of cotton and silk. The cabinet-work of fine wood, adorned with ivory and mother of pearl, has excited the admiration of the Europeans.* This city is enlivened by the bustle of commerce, and the passage of the caravans to Mecca. The great street which crosses it presents two rows of shops, in which the riches of India glitter along with those of Europe.† Its population may amount to 100,000. The private houses of Damascus, simple in external appearance, exhibit in the interior all the splendour and elegance of a refined luxury; the floors are of marble; alabaster and gildings are displayed on every side. In every great house there are several fountains playing in magnificent basins.‡ The smallest house has three water pipes, one for the kitchen, another for the garden, and a third for washing. The same magnificence is displayed in the mosques, the churches, and the coffee-houses. The Chan-Verdy, or Coffee-house of Roses, is considered as one of the curiosities of the Levant. The environs of the city, watered by the Barrady and other small streams, present at all seasons of the year a pleasing verdure, and contain an extensive series of gardens and villas. The valley of Damascus or Gutha is, according to Abulfeda, the first of the four terrestrial paradises.§ But beautiful places are often

City of Damascus.

Luxury of the inhabitants.

Environs.

* Schulze, Voyage, in Paulus's Collection, VII. 174.

† Nouveaux Mémoires des Missions de la Compagnie de Jésus, VI. 127, &c.

‡ Maundrell's Journey from Aleppo to Jerusalem, p. 125. sixth edition. Schulze, in the Collection of Paulus, VII. 127, &c.

§ Abulfeda, tab. Syriæ, p. 100.

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inhabited by unworthy people. The citizens of Damascus are accused of fanaticism by the Christians, and of perfidiousness by the Mussulmans. The Arabs have three proverbial characters for the three great cities on the confines of Arabia, expressed in a kind of rhyme; and signifying, the Damascans are false and traitorous, the Aleppans foppish idiots, and the people of Cairo a set of vindictive wretches.* But a recent traveller, Seetzen, contradicts this unfavourable account of the Damascans. The pashâlic of Damascus is in a much more flourishing condition than those of Aleppo and of Acre. Yusuph Pasha lately governed it with a paternal sway, but was displaced by the Porte for not duly remitting the revenue, and succeeded by another who also holds Acre, and who, though bred under the brutal Djezzar, is said to be a well disposed man.

Character of the inhabitants.

Palestine

Ancient Palestine, and the small provinces which have generally belonged to it, remain to be considered. To the south of Damascus lie the countries called by the ancients Auranitis and Gaulovitis, by the moderns Haurân and Tchaulân, consisting of one extensive and noble plain, bounded on the north by the ancient Hermon, the modern Djibel-el-Sheck; on the south-west by Djibel-Edj-lan; on the east by Djibbel Hauran. In all these countries there is not a single stream which retains its water in summer. The most of the villages have their pond or reservoir, which they fill from one of the *ouadi*, or streamlets, in the rainy season. Of all the countries of Syria, Hauran is the most renowned for the culture of wheat. Nothing can exceed in grandeur the extensive undulations of their fields moving like the waves of the ocean in the wind. This plain contains many scattered hummocks, the sites of villages either inhabited or deserted. All these hummocks, all the round stones found in the fields, all the building stones, and the whole mountain of Hauran, consist of basalt. The houses being entirely built of this

Countries of Chaulân and Hauran.

* "Shami shoumi, Halepi tshelebi, Maseri harami." Schultze, in Paulus, p. 170.

stone, even to the door-posts, present rather a sombre appearance.* The ancient Bostra, the capital of Roman Arabia in the third century, preserves its name, but is now in ruins.

Basalts.

The district of Bothin, the ancient Batanea, contains nothing except calcareous mountains, where there are vast caverns, in which the Arabian shepherds live like the ancient Troglodytes. Here their she-goats come spontaneously to be milked; and they have a huge log of wood to serve them both for light and heat. Here a modern traveller, Dr. Seetzen, in 1806, discovered the magnificent ruins of Gerasa, now called Djerash, where three temples, two superb amphitheatres of marble, and hundreds of columns, still stand, among other monuments of the Roman power. The finest thing that he saw, was a long street, bordered on each side with a row of Corinthian columns of marble, and terminating in a semicircular open space, surrounded with sixty Ionic columns.† This discovery confirms the opinion of Mannert that Gerasa had a more southerly situation than that assigned to it by d'Anville. The hill of Edgeloon, the ancient Gilead, bears oaks which produce gall-nuts. The inhabitants of the village of Es-salth, the capital of El-belka, the ancient Peræa, are subject to no master. Their country presents on its numerous terraces a mixture of vines, olives, and pomegranates. Karak-Moab, the capital of a district corresponding to that of the ancient Moabites, is to be distinguished from another Karak in Arabia Petræa. The countries now described are to the east of the river Jordan.

Bothin.

Ruins of Gerasa.

El-Belka.

This river, in the higher part of its course, forms the boundary between the country of Tchaulan and the fertile and beautiful Galilee, which is identical with the modern district of Saphet. The town of this name is said to be the same with the ancient Bethulia which was besieged by Holofernes; it is situated on a hill, at the bottom of which

Galilee.

* Seetzen, in Annales des Voyages, I. p. 398, first edition.

† Seetzen, Correspondance de M. Zach, XVIII. 425.

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myrtle groves extend on all sides.* Tabarya, an insignificant town, occupies the situation of Tiberias, which gave its name to the lake, which also went by that of Gennesareth or the Sea of Galilee. Date trees, orange trees, and indigo plants, surround this picturesque piece of water; but no fishing boat is employed here, though the fish are in great abundance.† Nazareth, where Jesus Christ was brought up, is a middle sized town. Six miles to the south of Nazareth stands the hill of Tabor, forming a pyramid of verdure; olives and sycamores crown its summit, which also contains a plain covered with wild wheat. It was called Itabyrius by some of the ancients. From the top of this mountain, which a venerable tradition assigns as the scene of the transfiguration of Christ, we look down on the river Jordan, the lake of Gennesareth, and the Mediterranean.‡ Galilee would be a paradise were it inhabited by an industrious people under an enlightened government. Vine stocks are to be seen here a foot and a half in diameter, forming by their twining branches vast arches and extensive ceilings of verdure. A cluster of grapes, two or three feet in length, will give an abundant supper to a whole family.§ The plains of Esdrelon, and all the other parts of it which afford pasture, are occupied by Arab tribes, around whose brown tents the sheep and lambs gambol to the sound of the reed, which at nigh-fall calls them home.‖ Of late years this whole neighbourhood has groaned and bled under the malignant genius of Djezzar Pashâ. The fields are left without cultivation, and the towns and villages are reduced to beggary. In the districts which come next in order, Dr. Clarke remarks a happy change of aspect, as they were subject to the more humane sway of the Pashâ of Damascus.

Tabor.

Samaria.

The ancient Samaria comprehends the districts of Areta and Nablous. In the former, to the north of the oak forest, formerly called Saronas, we find the remains of Ce-

* Schulze, in the collection of Paulus, VII. 60.

† Seetzen, ibid. 349.

‡ Maundrell's Journey, p. 115. Nau, Della Valle, &c. &c.

§ Schulze, in Pallas, VII. 102. ‖ Id. ibid. p. 6.

surea; and on the gulf of St. Jean d'Acre, the town of Haiffa, or Caiffa, where there is good anchorage for ships. On the south-west of this gulf a chain of mountains extends, the promontory of which, in particular, is known by the name of Carmel, a name famous in the annals of our religion. There, we are told, the prophet Elijah proved by miracles the divinity of his mission. There thousands of religious Christians once lived in caves of the rock: the mountain was then wholly covered with chapels and gardens. At the present day nothing is to be seen but scattered ruins amidst forests of oaks and olives, the verdure of which is interrupted by the whiteness of the calcareous rocks.* The heights of Carmel enjoy a pure and enlivening atmosphere, while the interior of Galilee and Samaria is often obscured by fogs.† BOOK XXVIII. Mount Carmel.

The city of Nablous, the ancient Neapolis of the age of Herod, but better known by the primitive name of Sichem, contains, in houses which make but little appearance, a considerable population for so desert a country. The Samaritans called Semri in Arabia, still worship the Deity on the verdant heights of Garizim.‡ They have forgotten their ancient language, which was a dialect of the Hebrew. Six miles farther north, the ruins of Samaria are covered with orchards. The country produces abundance of wheat, silks, and olives.§ The Samaritans.

Judea, properly so called, comprehends the modern district of Gaza, or the ancient country of the Philistines, that of Khalil or Hebron, and that of El-kods, or Jerusalem. In the first, besides Gaza, the chief town, we remark the celebrated port of Jaffa,‖ corresponding to the Joppa of antiquity. Fortified and dismantled in frequent alternation, this town is variously described in books of travels. It is here that the pilgrims land on their way to Jerusalem. If Judea were well cultivated, the exports of cotton from Jaffa might be considerable. Judea proper.

* Phil. a Sancta Trin. Itiner. † Schulze, in Paulus, VII. 55.
‡ Maundrell's Journey, p. 60. § Volney, II. 278.
‖ Pronounced Yaffa.

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Productions.

The soil, consisting of a sandy earth, rises from Jaffa towards the mountains of Judea, forming four ascending terraces.* The sea-shore is lined with mastic trees, palms, and prickly pears. Higher up, the vines, the olives, and the sycamores repay the labour of the cultivator; natural groves arise, consisting of evergreen oaks, cypresses, andrachnés and turpentine trees. The ground is covered with rosmaries, cistuses, and hyacinths. The vegetation of these mountains is compared by Pierre Belo to that of Ida in Crete.† Other travellers have dined under the shade of a lemon tree as large as one of our strong oaks, and have seen sycamores, the foliage of which was sufficient to cover thirty persons along with their horses.‡

The wine of St. John near Bethlehem is delicious. The wild olive trees near Jericho bear olives of a large size, and give the finest oil.§ In places subjected to irrigation, the same field, after a crop of wheat in May, produces pulse in autumn. Several of the fruit trees are continually bearing flowers and fruit at the same time in all their stages. The mulberries, planted in straight rows in the open fields, are festooned by the tendrils of the vine.‖ If this vegetation seems to languish or become extinct during the extreme heats; if in the mountains it is at all seasons somewhat detached and interrupted, such exceptions to the general luxuriance are not to be ascribed simply to the general character of all hot and dry climates, but also to the state of barbarism in which the great mass of the present population is immersed.

Ancient fertility.

Still some remains are to be found of the walls which they built to support the soil on the declivities; the remains of cisterns, in which they collected the rain water; and traces of the canals by which these waters were

* Chateaubriand, Itineraire de Jerusalem, II. 123—135, &c.

† Pierre Bel, Observ. de singularités, p. 140. Hasselquist's Travels in Palestine, p. 535, 550, 568, &c. (in German.)

‡ Schultze, in Paulus, VI. 278. VII. 34.

§ Schultze's Travels, or the Ways of the Almighty, II. 86, 135, (in German.)

‖ Korte's Travels in Palestine, p. 187, (German) Hasselq. passim.

distributed over their fields. These labours necessarily created a prodigious fertility under an ardent sun, where a little water was the only requisite to revive the vegetable world. The accounts given by the ancients of the fertility of Judea, collected by the Abbé Guénée, are not in the least degree falsified by the present state of things. "The case," as Belo observes, "is exactly the same with the islands of the Archipelago; a tract from which a hundred individuals draw a scanty subsistence, formerly maintained thousands." Moses might justly say that Canaan abounded in milk and honey. The flocks of the Arabs still find in it succulent pastures, and the wild bees horde up in the holes of the rocks a fragrant honey, which is sometimes seen flowing down the surface. Nor were the ancients, and particularly the Hebrew writers, averse, where the truth was dictated, to notice the dryness and sterility of particular parts, such as the central chain of the hills of Judea, and a desert which extended from these mountains eastward to the Dead Sea. Here, both ancients and moderns tell us they have found nothing but stones, sand, ashes, and a few thorny shrubs. Belo had already remarked this contrast between the two sides of the chain of Judea.

Mountains.

"As we approach the centre of Judea," says a celebrated writer, "the sides of the mountains enlarge and assume an aspect at once more grand and more barren; by little and little the vegetation languishes and dies; even mosses disappear; and a red and burning hue succeeds to the whiteness of the rocks. In the centre of the mountains, there is an arid basin, inclosed on all sides with yellow pebble-covered summits, which afford a single opening to the east, through which the surface of the Dead Sea and the distant hills of Arabia present themselves to the eye. In the midst of this country of stones, encircled by a wall, we perceive extensive ruins, scanty cypresses, bushes of the aloe and the prickly pear; some Arabian huts, resembling white-washed sepulchres, are spread over this heap of ruins. This spot is Jerusalem.*" This touching description of

* Chateaubriand, les Martyrs, liv. 17. vol. III. p. 99, 3d edition.

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City of Jerusalem.

the holy city, as it existed in the third century, has applied too nearly to its modern condition. Though peopled with 20 or 30,000 inhabitants, according to the varying estimates of travellers, this city is described by many who have visited it as presenting to our view nothing but cabins resembling prisons rather than houses. Their interior, however, is allowed to be richer than the external aspect would lead us to believe. Dr. Clarke, one of its latest visitants, says, that at the first view he was struck with its grandeur, that instead of a wretched and ruined town, as he had expected, he beheld a flourishing and stately metropolis, domes, towers, palaces, and monasteries, shining in the sun's rays with inconceivable splendour. Like many other ancient places, it, no doubt, presents two aspects, a mixture of magnificence and paltriness. On the whole, Jerusalem appears to be at the present moment in a state of progressive improvement. There are three convents in it, belonging to the Latins, the Greeks, and the Armenians, resembling strong castles. On the site of the temple of Solomon, a fine exposure, stands the Mahometan mosque, adding a degree of external splendour to the place; but the Christians are not allowed to approach, and much less to enter it. The church of the holy sepulchre inclosed within its magnificent but irregular walls the place where the cross of Jesus Christ was set up, and the hole in which his body was deposited. A Turkish guard draws the tax imposed on the pious pilgrim, on visiting the memorable spot where the great Founder of Christianity confirmed his divine morality by his death.

The holy sepulchre.

Historical revolutions of the city.

Few cities have undergone so many revolutions as Jerusalem. Once the metropolis of the powerful kingdom of David and of Solomon, it had its temples built of the cedar of Lebanon, and ornamented with the gold of Ophir. After being laid waste by the Babylonian army, it was rebuilt in more than its original beauty under the Maccabees and the Herods. The Grecian architecture was now introduced, as is shown by the royal tombs on the north of the city.* It then contained some hundred thousands

* Chateaubriand, Itineraire II. 351—362.

of inhabitants; but in the year 70 of the Christian era, it was visited by the signal vengeance of heaven, being razed to the foundation by the Roman Titus. Adrian built in its stead the city of *Ælia Capitolina*; but in the time of Constantine, the name of Jerusalem was restored, and has ever since been retained. Helen, this emperor's mother, adorned the holy city with several monuments. In the seventh century it fell under the power of the Persians and Arabians. The latter called it El-Kods, "the holy," and sometimes El-Sherif, "the noble." In 1098, the chevaliers of Christian Europe came to deliver it from the hands of the Mahometans. The throne of the Godfreys and of Baldwin imparted to it a momentary lustre, which was soon effaced by intestine discord. In 1187, Saladin replaced the crescent on the hills of Zion. Since that period, conquered at different times by the sultans of Damascus, of Bagdat, and of Egypt, it finally changed its masters, for the seventeenth time, by submitting in 1517 to the Turkish arms. BOOK XXVIII.

Bethlehem, where Jesus Christ was born, is a large village, inhabited by Christians and Mussulmans, who are actuated by an equal spirit of dislike to the existing government. The reputed locality of the sacred manger is occupied by an elegant church, ornamented by the pious offerings of the whole of Europe. It is not our intention to enter on a minute critical discussion of those old traditions by which the particular places rendered sacred by the Saviour's presence are marked out. They present much vagueness, mingled with the truth. No credit certainly is due to the story in which the city of Hebron, called in Arabic Khalil, claims the possession of the tomb of Abraham, and attracts on this account the veneration both of Christians and Mahometans. Hebron, situated to the south of Jerusalem, in a country less arid, contains from 1000 to 1200 inhabitants, has some pretty manufactures of glass, and exports a great quantity of *dibsé*, a sort of sugar obtained from the grape.* To the north-east of Jerusalem, in the large and fertile valley called El-Gor, Bethlehem. Hebron.

* Shaw's Travels.

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which is watered by the Jordan, we find the village of Rihha, the ancient Jericho, called by Moses the city of palms. This is a name to which it is still entitled; but the groves of opobalsamum, or the balm of Mecca, have disappeared; and the environs of this city are no longer adorned with the flowers of the *anastatica hierochuntica*, to which an error, founded in superstition, has given the appellation of Jericho roses.

Jericho.

To the east of Judea, two rude and arid chains of hills encompass, with their dark steeps, a long basin, formed in a clay soil, mixed with bitumen and rock salt. The waters contained in this hollow is impregnated with a mixture of different saline matters, having lime, magnesia, and soda, for their base, partially neutralized with muriatic and sulphuric acid. The salt which they yield by evaporation is about one fourth of their weight.* The asphalta, or bitumen of Judea, rises from time to time from the bottom, floats on the surface of the lake, and is thrown out on the shores, where it is gathered for use. Formerly the inhabitants were in the practice of going out in boats or rafts to collect it in the middle of the lake. None of our travellers have thought of sailing on this lake, which would undoubtedly contribute to render their acquaintance with its phenomena more complete. We are told by the greater part of those who have visited it, that neither fish nor shells are to be found in it, that an unwholsome vapour is sometimes emitted by it, and that its shores, frightfully barren, are never cheered by the note of any bird. The inhabitants, however, are not sensible of any noxious quality in its vapours; and the accounts of birds falling down dead in attempting to fly over it are entirely fabulous. We are taught to believe that the site of the Dead Sea was once a fertile valley, partly resting on a mass of subterranean water, and partly composed of a stratum of bitumen; that a fire from heaven kindled these combustible materials, the fertile soil sunk into the abyss beneath, and that Sodom and Gomorrha, and other cities of the plain, probably built of bituminous stones, were consumed in the tremendous conflagration. In this manner the amateurs of phy-

Dead Sea, or lake Asphaltites.

Physical revolutions.

* Gordon in the Bibliotheque Britannique.

sical geography contrive a scientific explanation of those awful changes of which, according to the Scriptures, this place was once the scene.* BOOK XXVIII.

TABLES
OF THE
SUBDIVISIONS OF SYRIA AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

Tab. I.—*Under the Romans in the first three centuries.*

Greater Divisions.	Subordinate Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Syria Superior. (Upper Syria.)	Comagene.	Samosata.
	Cyrrhestica. . . .	Cyrrhus. Berœa, (Aleppo,) Hierapolis.
	Pieria.	Alexandria.
	Seleucis	Seleucia.
	Antiochene . . .	Antiochia.
	Casiotis	Laodicea, ad mare.
	Apamene	Apamia. Emesa.
	Chalcidice	Chalcis.
	Chalybonitis† . . .	Chalybon. Thapsacus.
	Palmyrene	Palmyra.
Cœle-Syria. .	None	Damascus. Heliapolis.
Phenice. . . (Phenicia.)	None	Aradus. Tripolis. Berytus. Sidon. Tyrus. Ptolemaïs.
Palæstina. . .	Galilæa Superior . .	Cæsarea Philippi, v. Paneas.
	—— Inferior . . .	Tiberias. Nazareth.
	Samaria	Samaria. Neapolis. (v. Sichem,) Cæsarea.
	Judæa.	
	Judæa Propria . .	Hierosolyma. (Jerusalem.) Jericho. Joppa.
	Pentapolis, s. Palæstina Propria . .	Gaza. Asdod, v. Azotus.
	Idumæa	Hebron.
	Peræa.	
	Trachonitis . . .	
	Gaulonitis . . .	(The present Tshaulân.)
	Batanæa . . .	(The present Bothin.)
	Auranitis . . .	Bostra.
	Ituræa	. . . . .
	Decapolis . . .	Gerasa. Gadara.
	Peræa propria . .	Pella. Amathus.
	Ammonitis . . .	Philadelphia.
	Moabitis	. . . . .

* Annales des Voyages, XIII. Mémoire sur la mer Morte, d'apres Busching.

† Some of the learned consider Chalybonitis as a small subdivision of Cyrrhestica. Chalybon, according to such, is the present Aleppo or Chalep, called also Berœa; but Ptolemy makes Berœa distinct from Chalybon.

BOOK XXVIII. TAB. II.—*Division of Palestine (or Canaan) among the Twelve Tribes, compared to those of the Romans.*

Ancient Canaanitish Division.	Israelitish Division.	Roman Division.
Sidonians . . .	Tribe of Asher . . . . (In Libanus.)	Upper Galilee.
Unknown . . .	Naphthali . . . . . (North-west of the lake of Gennesareth.)	
Pheresites . . .	Zebulon . . . . . (West of that lake.)	Lower Galilee.
The same . . .	Issachar . . . . . (Valley of Esdrelon. Mount Tabor.)	
Hivites . . .	Half-tribe of Manasseh . . (Dora and Cæsarea,) mingled with the following.	Samaria.
The same . . .	Ephraim . . . . . (Sichem, Samaria, district of Sarouas.)	
Jebusites . . .	Benjamin . . . . . (Between Ephraim and Judah. Jericho. Jerusalem.)	Judæa.
Hethites, Amorites	Juda . . . . . (Hebron. Judea proper.)	
Philistines . . . (Pentapolis, Palæstina propria.)	Simeon . . . . . (South-west of Juda.) Dan . . . . . (Joppa, &c.)	
Moabites . . .	Reuben . . . . . (Perea proper, southern Hesbon.)	Peræa.
Ammonites, Gilead.	Gad . . . . . (Northern Perea, part of Decapolis and of Ammonitis.)	
Kingdom of Bashan	Half-tribe of Manasseh . . (Gaulonitis, Batanea.)	

N. B. The Canaanites and Israelites having long led the lives of shepherds, their limits are not quite distinct. Michaelis could not complete the researches which Reland and d'Anville began, nor can any one.

The tribes of Simeon and Dan do not appear to have ever occupied their whole territory. The Philistines lived in them in a state of vassalage. The tribe of Asher was expelled from the sea-coast by the Tyrians: Reuben, Gad, and the eastern half of Manasseh, appear never to have subjugated all the Ammonites and Moabites.

TABLE III.—*Division of the Diocese of the East, (established by Constantine and his successors, partly also by Trajan.)*

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Corresponding Divisions.
Arabia *g*	Bostra	Batanea. Auranitis.
Palæstina prima *h* .	Cæsarea (ad mare) . *Jerusalem.	Samaria. Judæa propria. Pentapolis or the country of the Philistines.
Palæstina secunda .	Scythopolis . . . (Bethsan.)	Galilæa. Gaulonitis. Decapolis.
Palæstina tertia, or salutaris	Petræa	Idumæa. Arabia Petræa.
Phœnicia prima . .	Ptolemais . . . . *Tyrus.	The Sea coast.
Phœnicia Libanica .	Heliopolis ? . . . *Damascus.	Cœlesyria.
Syria	Antiochia . . . . *Apaméa.	Seleucia. Pieria. Cassiotis Apamène, &c.
Syria Euphratesia .	Samosata . . . . *Hierapolis.	Comagène. Cyrrhestica. Chalcidice.
Syria salutaris . .	Palmyra	Palmyrene. Chalybonitis.
Osrhoene. Mesopotamia	} See Mesopotamia.	
Cilicia prima et secunda. Cyprus. Isauria.	} See Asia Minor.	

g The coins found by Mr. Seetsen at Gerara and other places belong to the reign of the Antonines. It is probable that the division under the name of Arabia is as old as Trajan or the Antonines.

h Finding Cesarea preferred to Jerusalem as the capital, we are led to believe that these divisions of Palestine are as old as the reign of Adrian, if not of Titus.

TABLE IV.—*Divisions of the Kingdom of Jerusalem in the Twelfth Century, according to the Abbé Guénée.*

FEODAL DIVISIONS.

I. Royal Domains	Jerusalem. Nablous. Acre. Tyre, and their respective districts.
II. First Great Barony . . .	Country of Jaffa. ——— of Ascalon. Lordship of Rama. ——— of Mirabel. ——— of Ybelin.
III. Second Great Barony . .	Principality of Galilee.
IV. Third Great Barony . . .	Lordship of Sidon. ——— of Cesarea. ——— of Bethsan.
V. Fourth Great Barony . .	Lordship of Krak (Petra.) ——— of Hebron. ——— of Montreal.
VI. County of Tripoli . . .	A dependent principality, but distinct from the Kingdom of Jerusalem.

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS.

I. Patriarchs of Jerusalem .	Bishoprics of Bethlehem. ——— of Lydda. ——— of Hebron.
II. Archbishopric of Krak . .	——— of Mount Sinai.
III. Ditto of Cæsarea	——— of Sebaste. (Samaria.)
IV. Ditto of Nazareth . . .	——— of Tiberius. Priory of Mount Tabor.
V. Ditto of Tyre	Bishoprics of Beryta. ——— of Sydon. ——— of Paneas. ——— of Ptolemais.

TABLE V.—*Present leading divisions of Syria.*

Divisions.	Towns.	Corresponding Divisions of Antiquity.
Pashâlic of Aleppo.	Aleppo. Aintab. Birmambije. Antakia. Skanderon . . .	Comagene. Cyrrhestica. Chalcidice. Seleucia Antiochène. (in Upper Syria.)
Pashâlic of Tripoli.	Tarabolos, (Tripoli,) Latakia. Djebail.	Casiotis, (of Upper Syria.) The north part of Phœnicia.
Pashâlic of Saide. (or of Acre.)	Saide. Acre. Dair-el-Kamar. (in the country of the Druses.) Saphet . . .	Phœnicia. Cœlesyria in the limited acceptation. Galilee.
Pashâlic of Damascus.	Famieh. (Apamea,) Tadmor, (Palmyra,) Damascus. Jerusalem. Gaza . . .	Apameme and Palmyrene, (of Upper Syria.) Eastern Cœlesyria. Palestine, with the exception of Galilee.

Present Divisions of Ancient Palestine, according to Busching, Volney, and others.

I. El Kods	Jerusalem. Jericho, &c. The north-west of Judea.
II. El-Khalil	Hebron, and the south of Judea.
III. Gaza or Palestine	The sea coast, with Jaffa, Gaza, &c.
IV. Ludd	A district round the city of Ludd.
V. Nablous	The city of this name, with the ancient country of Samaria.
VI. Areta	Mount Carmel, with part of the plain of Esdrelon.
VII. Safet	Ancient Galilee, called also Belad-el-Bushra, or the country of the Gospel.
VIII. Belad Shekyf	Ancient Trachonitis, with Belad-Hauran, Auranitis, &c.
IX. El-Gaur, (eastern.)	Ancient Peræa. One district is named Es-Szalth.
X. El-Sharrat	On the south and south-east of the Dead Sea, with El-Djebal, the ancient Gébalene.

BOOK XXIX.

TURKEY IN ASIA

PART IV.

A General View of the Ottoman Empire.

BOOK XXIX.

HAVING described the provinces of Asiatic Turkey with that care which is justly claimed by countries which once enjoyed so brilliant a celebrity, and which, let us hope, will, at some future time, be again subjected to the benign influence of civilization, let us now take a political survey of the Turkish empire, which also extends into Europe and into Africa, though its principal possessions are in Asia.

Origin of the Turks. The Ottomans.

The darkness in which the history of the Turkish or Tartar nations in general is enveloped, conceals from our view the origin of that tribe which has acquired such celebrity under the name of the Othmans.* We have already seen that some Turks, governed by princes of the race Seldjoukid, were, in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries, in possession of a powerful state, which, under the name of the Sultanat of Konieh and of Room, comprehended Asia Minor, with Armenia and Georgia. About the year 1308 this sultanat was destroyed by the Mongols; and in a short time the Ottoman power appeared in its stead. The learned Deguignes thought he had proved† that the Ottomans were a Cumanian tribe which was driven from Chorassem by the same Mongols, and came to

* Pronounced in Arabic *Oshman*.

† Histoire des Huns, &c. tom. IV. p. 350.

settle in the mountains of Taurus, under the protection of the sultans of Room, about the year 1231. Whatever may have been their previous history, one of the chiefs of this tribe, named Othman, made himself independent about the year 1300; and his successors, adopting the title of "sultan," in exchange for that of "emir," contrived in the course of a century to extend their empire from the banks of the Euphrates to those of the Danube. Thrace, Servia, Macedonia, and Thessaly, were now subject to their power, and Constantinople was surrounded by their conquests; when Tamerlane, in 1402, having defeated the sultan Bajazet the first, the Ottoman power seemed to totter. Constantinople began to breathe from the pressure by which her existence had been threatened; but Mahomet the first, with the assistance of the vizir Ibrahim Khan, re-established the fortunes of the Turks. The great Amurat the second, maintained a desperate contest with Joannes Hunyad and Scanderberg, antagonists every way worthy of him. He punished the perfidy of the Christians by the defeat of their main army at Varna. Mahomet the second, in 1453, entered Constantinople sword in hand, and established himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian. From Trebisond to Bosnia every thing submitted without a contest to his arms. He subdued the Crimea; his fleets made descents even on Italy. Selim I. in 1517, overthrowing the sultanat of the Mamelooks, subjugated Syria and Egypt. Rhodes was wrested from its valorous knights. Hungary, distracted by intestine broils, opened in 1520 a passage for Soliman II. to Vienna: but this imperial city presented an effectual barrier to the further progress of the Crescent. Selim II. in the mean time, wrested from the Venetians the isle of Cyprus. The defeat of the Turkish fleet near Lepanto, in 1571, was not followed by any important consequences. But a race of weak sultans, and a series of revolutions in the seraglio, now sowed in the empire the seeds of anarchy. Under Mahomet II. the energy of the nation seemed to revive: the island of Candia was conquered. Vienna sustained a

Conquests of the Ottomans.

First siege of Vienna.

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second seige in 1683, which was raised by the exertions of John Sobieski, king of Poland. The conquest of Bagdat marked the superiority of the Turkish to the Persian power. But no Solimans nor Amurats now sat on the throne of Constantinople. A century was spent in frequent wars, attended by no decisive results. Asoph, in the north, conquered in 1642, was lost and reconquered. The Morea, lost in 1699, was soon after subjected to the Turkish power. Austria, which in 1699 and 1718 had made large acquisitions in Servia and Wallachia, lost her advantages in the disgraceful treaty of 1739, by which the Russians themselves were forced to surrender the conquests which they had made under the conduct of Munich. Yet this war instructed Europe in the secret of the weakness of the Ottomans. Russia soon ventured to contend single-handed with the Turks, and beat them by land and by sea. Romanzoff passed the Danube: the fleet of Orloff sailed round from the north into the Mediterranean, and burned the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Tchesme. The treaty of 1774 restored independence to the Crimea and Kuban, delivered up to the Russians the most important military stations in those countries, and thus opened to their flag the Black Sea and the passage of the Dardanelles. The Ottoman Porte attempted to evade these severe conditions. In consequence of this reluctance, she saw Crimea in the possession of the Russians in 1783; and, in five years after, was involved in a war with Russia and Austria together. It was to the inexperience of Joseph II. and of Prince Potemkin, to the daring efforts of Gustavus III. in the north, and to the interference of the Prussian and British governments, that she was indebted for the conclusion of the war, in which Otchakoff was lost, and which threatened the instant expulsion of the Turks from Europe. Russia, however, afterwards availed herself of the events of the French Revolution to engage the Turks in an alliance, by which her command over the destinies of that empire was extended to every corner. A weak divan sacrificed its independence for the recovery of Egypt. The

Second siege of Vienna.

Fall of the Ottoman power.

Russian squadrons passed up under the sacred walls of the seraglio. The Russian armies established themselves in the Grecian islands; the name of Russia was invoked by the restless spirits of Servia and Wallachia, eager to throw off the yoke of Turkey. The French under Bonaparte, pleasing themselves with the prospect of universal conquest, spared the Turkish power only because the conquest of the Russian empire was a more brilliant object for their arms, and the materials of that empire were more easily amalgamated with those already in the hands of this all-powerful invader, and more easily made effective for future conquests. The sudden fall of French preponderance having imparted a renovated energy to the influence of the Russian monarchy, and Austria being for the moment in mutual league with Russia, the extinction of Turkish domination now becomes a matter of the utmost facility. Great Britain may wish to interpose her power to check the extension of an empire so threatening in its aspect towards herself as Russia. But the Russian power is too close on Turkey, and has in other respects too little to dread from any other nation to allow such distant considerations to shackle her movements. Or, if she wishes to avoid a contest with the maritime prowess of that country, she may purchase her peace by a division of the spoil, allowing to the British, what she cannot prevent, the occupation of the numerous islands of the Mediterranean, now in the hands of the Turks. Such is the morality dictated by the sword, the law of emperors and domineering courts, the execution of which may be postponed by convenience or a sense of decency, while the occurrence of future pretexts and opportunities is wished for and expected. It is well for mankind when this looseness of international principle is in some degree expiated by the establishment of just institutions, and the protection of civil liberty in the countries subjected to these mutually tolerated and occasionally confederated powers. We have not yet reached the period when a plurality of them have shown any willingness to adjust their relative interests by a conjoint re-

Present prospects.

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linquishment of conquests which they have long held, in favour of home-born governments, suited to the original character and the cherished pride of ancient national communities. But, taking men as they are, and considering the ready intercourse now maintained among the most distant parts of our planet, it becomes matter of doubt whether extensive governments are not better suited to the repose of the world than a frittering down of the inhabited earth into small nations, where the prejudices and the inclinations of one ferocious tribe might disturb the transactions of all who come in contact with them. The ravages attending the wars of great nations are, while they last, evils of proportional magnitude. But they are open; they attract attention; they give warning to the peaceful to prepare for avoiding the scene, or to choose the part which their inclination or principles may lead them to take in the contest: and, when these are terminated, they leave mankind in a condition to prosecute the business of life without the perpetual dread of lawless attacks. We have not yet arrived at an era in which the bubble of military glory has lost its delusive hues, nor is civilization so widely extended as to produce one deliberate understanding, and one code of mutual conduct among the whole human species. It is when local prejudices and confined habits are prohibited from exercising an influence on more foreign relations, that the great mass of mankind will have it in their power to lay a hand of gentleness, but of irresistible weight, on every unjust inclination, and to repress in the conduct of conspicuous individuals every movement implying a tendency to a vain and ungenerous aggrandizement. Were this happily the case, the rare occurrence of intentional crimes would limit the field of pretexts for acts of unjust aggression under the guise of a redress of our own or other's grievances, or a forcible maintenance of the peace of the world.

Frontiers of the Ottoman empire.

While we wait for the effects of political circumstances, we perceive in every quarter of the Turkish frontier the encroachments of adverse fortune. An extremely pre-

carious authority is all that is left to the Porte in Africa. The uncertain boundaries of Syria are liable to the constant insults of the Arabs. The line of separation from the Persian empire has continued unaltered for a century, but the pasha of Bagdat and the tribes of Koordistan yield to the Grand Sultan a very dubious homage. It is not easy to say where the Turks have a barrier on the side of Russia. The latter extend to the banks of the Phasis in Asia, and to those of the Danube in Europe. From Austria, the mountains of Transylvania and part of the course of the Danube and the Save, form a sort of natural frontier, rendered ineffectual by Dalmatia (which spreads over the frontiers of Servia and Bosnia) having passed through the hands of Bonaparte into those of Austria, and the Ionian islands having passed through the same medium into the hands of Britain.

Advantages of its position.

A government of a mild and enlightened character, possessed of these extensive countries, might form one of the finest empires in the world. It would derive great commercial advantages from that central situation which Turkey enjoys in the old continent, giving her so ready access to the commodities of Europe, Asia, and Africa; that intercourse being at the same time admirably facilitated by the openings which the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulph, and the river Euphrates afford to the two great oceans of the globe.

The Turks never reckon up their population, nor keep statistical records of the component parts of their empire. They do not know whether it is so much depopulated as others represent it, or if their weakness in this particular has been exaggerated. With respect to extent of territory, the results of a comparative examination of modern accounts and modern maps are represented in the following Table:

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TURKEY IN EUROPE.

	Square Miles.
Moldavia (with Bessarabia)	26,639
Wallachia	23,066
Servia, Bosnia, and Turkish Dalmatia	31,366
Bulgaria	27,174
Romania proper	25,716
Macedonia	21,142
Albania proper	16,645
Epirus, Thessaly, Livadia	14,915
Morea	7,227
Candia or Crete	4,613
Eubea and the other isles of Europe	3,806
Total Turkey in Europe	202,309

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Anatolia, with Caramania and Room, as far as the Euphrates	200,196
Syria, exclusive of the Desert	51,773
Armenia, with Turkish Georgia, &c.	64,002
Diarbekir, Mesopotamia, &c.	144,650
Total, Turkey in Asia	460,626
Do. Do. in Europe	202,309
Egypt	152,261
Total of the Ottoman Empire, (exclusive of the Barbary States)	815,196

Population. It would be vain to expect a near approximation to the truth in any conjectures which we might indulge respecting the population of a state in which registers and a regular census are unknown. Some writers estimate that of European Turkey at twenty-two, while others have reduced it to eight millions,* and both assign equally plausible grounds for their opinions. Respecting Asiatic Tur-

* Bruns. Magas. Géograph. I. cah. 1. p. 68—74. compared with Ludeck's Authentic Account of the Ottoman empire. Etton's View and de Tott's Memoirs.

key the uncertainty, if not still greater, is at least more generally acknowledged. Supposing the houses to be as thinly scattered as in the less populous parts of Spain, the population of all Turkey, in Europe, Asia, and Africa, may amount to 25 or 30 millions, of which one half belongs to Asia. Under the want of any thing like positive evidence, we shall not deviate far from probability in allowing to Anatolia, five milions; to Armenia, two;* to Koordistan, one; to the pashâlics of Bagdat, Mosul, and Diarbekir, one and a half; and to Syria, 1,800,000, or at most two millions.

Physical constitution of the Turks.

The moral and political condition of the Ottomans is a subject which presents less uncertainty, and is in itself more interesting. The Turks are allowed to be a large, well formed, and robust race of men, of rather a harsh yet often a noble physiognomy, and a tawny complexion, with black or rather dark brown hair.† They have a natural gravity of deportment, which is increased by a large flowing dress, thick rolls of turban on the head, and long mustaches, the last of which ornaments are by them, as by all Asiatic nations, reckoned indispensible.‡ Their exterior gives no countenance to the Mongol extraction which their national authors ascribe to them. They seem to differ from other Tartar nations in nothing else than a degree of favourable alteration arising from an admixture of European blood.

Language.

The language of the Turks, however, in the unanimous opinion of philologists, has in its radical materials a closer alliance with that of Tartary than with any other. But the Turkish writers have introduced into their more elevated style many words and phrases adopted from the copious language of Arabia, or from the elegant idiom of modern Persia. This admixture has procured to the Turkish language the appellation of *Mulemma*, or "the pied mare."§ The Turks being, of all the races which have proceeded from central Asia, that which has

* Olivier, Voyage IV. Volney, Voyage en Syrie, II.

† Busbeck, Ludecke, Lady M. Montague, &c. ‡ Tott, I. 191.

§ Adelung. Mithrid. I. 459, &c. Jenisch, de fatis linguarum orientalium. Meninski, Dictionarum Turcicum, &c.

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most recently settled in Europe, and their former glory and honour having inspired them with a lofty national pride, we find them still preserving inviolable, and most particularly in the Asiatic provinces, the same religious creed, and the same manners and customs by which three centuries ago they were distinguished, a constancy which might merit our praise if enlightened and directed by sound principles of policy. Frugal, and generally vegetable fare, a prevalent abstinence from wine, habitual masculine exercises, such as riding and the use of arms, (the more effeminate exercise of dancing being proscribed,) a grave ceremonious hospitality, taciturnity, much external devotion, simple and quiet dwellings, gardens retired and romantic, these are the chief features which impart to the mode of living of the Turks, as well as the orientalists in general, an original and distinct character.

Mode of living.

Amusements.

The indolent Turk is a stranger to the bustle of our social circles; he reposes on his sopha covered with the softest cushions; smokes the tobacco of Syria; warms and regales himself by sipping at short intervals the coffee of Moka; looks on while the slaves dance before him; and at times takes a few grains of opium, by which his imagination is transported to the third heavens. Polygamy, however, is far from bringing to every Mussulman that exuberance of voluptuous enjoyment with which, in the minds of the inexperienced and unreflecting, the word is so often associated. The Turkish women being entitled to spend with extravagance, while they have no line of industry to follow, men of moderate fortune are prudent enough to confine themselves to one wife. Sometimes those women who are at their own disposal, or their relations for them, insist, in their marriage contracts, on a formal renunciation on the part of the husband of the licence which Mahometans enjoy to marry four wives. Polygamy thus becomes the luxury of the rich and the great. Female slaves, purchased from the Georgians and Circassians, but in larger proportions from the Lesghians people their harams, those close and sacred apartments within which

Polygamy.

Harams. Turkish women.

Turkish jealousy has confined the empire of beauty. When walking abroad from their harams, which we improperly call seraglios,* the Mahometan women, whether wives or concubines, are always covered with triple veils, and a dress by which the features and the forms of these walking mummies are effectually concealed from the most sagacious observation. It is only in their baths, which are scrupulously locked, or in the interior of their harams, that the women enjoy one another's society, and give fêtes. There they regale themselves with sherbet, sweetmeats, coffee, and tobacco: there they display their dresses, their laces, their jewels, and indulge in criticisms on their husbands or their neighbours. Dancing girls are admitted, who entertain them with rather wanton exhibitions; but no women of character dance in Turkey. The Turkish women are not furnished with any pretext for occasional liberty by the places of worship, the law of Mahomet not requiring them to attend prayers in public. But notwithstanding the precautions employed, we are told that the Mahometan ladies find some opportunities of repaying the indifference or the infidelity of a husband; that by the medium of the milliners, who are generally Jews or Armenians, they can extend their correspondence beyond the triple walls of the haram of the most formidable pashâ. It is said, but we do not vouch for the accuracy of the fact, that as they cannot read or write *billet-doux*, they convey their sentiments by showing or sending flowers under certain emblematic arrangements.† Language of flowers.

The Turks have some points which indicate the gentle feelings of humanity lurking in the heart. The same species of benevolence which restrains the Indians from depriving animals of life, seems to be equally inherent in the masters of the Bosphorus. In the Turkish towns dogs and cats enjoy an abundance which our beggars Benevolence to animals.

* Seraglio is a Persian word for a palace.

† Lady M. Montague's letters. Hammer in the Fundgruben des Orients, or the Annales des Voyages.

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might envy. Flocks of pigeons traversing the air, light on the merchant vessels which are loaded with grain, to levy a tribute which is seldom refused them. Aquatic birds swarm on the banks of the canal at Constantinople, and their nests are respected even by children. This benevolence is even extended to trees. A useful and commendable prejudice prevents the most avaricious proprietor from depriving the village or the field of their pleasing and salubrious shade. The rich take a pride in adorning the public walks with fountains and with seats, two things which are rendered necessary by the frequent ablutions and prayers enjoined by the Mahometan religion. The khans, or caravanseras, are public inns, in which travellers and working people are lodged without payment. In the houses of the Turkish proprietors, whether in the Morea, Anatolia, or the island of Candia, several travellers concur in remarking purity of manners, domestic happiness, and a patriarchal hospitality.* But the extreme pride of the Turks, rendered more offensive by the harshness of their manners, has so wounded the feelings of the generality of travellers, that they have seen nothing in the whole race except a ferocity, an ignorance, and a grossness, which are proof against all the means of civilization. Europe has forgotten the power and the able policy of the Amurats and the Solimans. To our scandalous terrors, and our stupor blended with inordinate admiration, an extreme and groundless contempt has succeeded. We are too apt to lose sight of the influence of laws and institutions in moulding the character of a people.

Public walks.

Caravanseras.

Pride of the Turks.

It is not to despotism, in the meaning annexed to that word by modern Europeans, that the misery and weakness of Turkey must be ascribed. The Sultan, who also assumes the title of Padi-Shah, translated the Grand Signor, is far from enjoying by law an unlimited authority. He cannot infringe on any of the rules dictated in

Power of the Grand Signor.

* Savary's Letters on Greece. Schulze, in Paulus, VII. Chandler's Travels in Asia Minor, passim.

the Koran, the divine law which is obligatory on all the Moslem or true believers. He cannot even, without extreme risk, interfere with the institutions which long usage and national prejudice have consecrated. He appoints and displaces at his pleasure the great civil and military functionaries; he is master of their fortune and their lives. But the exercise of this redoubted power is impeded by great obstacles. One pashâ beats the armies sent to deprive him of his government; another sends to Constantinople the head of the capidji who came for his. Yet these restrictions on the sultan's power, substantial as they are, have not the effect which some have maintained, of making Turkey* a limited monarchy in the European acceptation. We rather find in the constitution of that empire a military tyranny which has fallen to pieces, and degenerated into anarchy. The opposition made by the people and by the pashâs amounts to nothing more than a dismal train of devastating insurrections. Its political state is characterized by two principles. The first is, that every man who is invested with power is at liberty to delegate this power entirely to another: the sultan is the viceregent of the prophet; every pashâ is a representative of the sultan; every soldier who carries an order is the representative of the pashâ.† This principle, which by multiplying to infinity the number of oppressors, makes the oppression bear heavily on all classes, is the consequence of the military origin of the Turkish empire. This victorious nation continues to treat its vast conquests like a city taken by assault. It is less like a nation than an army encamped in the midst of vanquished nations. Hence a second fundamental principle, that all persons and property conquered by the Ottomans belong to the Sultan. What can Christians, Jews, Armenians, and other dogs, be accounted, but the slaves of the conqueror? They are

Principles of government.

* Porter on the Religion, Laws, &c. of the Turks, chiefly in chap. VI. p. 75, 78.

† Volney, Syrie, II. du Gouvernment des Turcs.

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allowed to live, but are forced to pay a tribute the receipt for which bears that it is the ransom of their heads. The same principle applied to territory, prevents the Turks themselves from having a right in fee simple to any heritable property. They are only tenants for life; and when they die without male issue, the sultan becomes their heir. If there are sons, he claims indeed only a tenth of the property left; but the clerks of the treasury employed to value this tenth, rate it as high as they please.* The state officers do not even enjoy this imperfect right; whatever they possess falls at their death into the hands of the sultan. This instability of property prevents any one from undertaking expensive and substantial buildings.† The Turks prefer the collecting of trinkets and such riches as are portable and easily concealed. The only way of avoiding this system of universal confiscation is, according to the acknowledgment of one of the vindicators of the Turks, to give their lands as a *vakf*, that is, a pious legacy to a mosque; the proprietor, on paying a small rent to the mosque, thus becomes an irremoveable tenant;‡ but the lawyers, whose employment it is to take the charge of the legacy, often contrive to become the chief profiters by this singular institution. We must add to the two principles now stated, the universal prevalence of a most scandalous

Venality.

venality. The situations of pashâ, of cadi or judge, and all public employments, are openly given to the highest offerer. He naturally uses his best exertions during his term of office, generally short, to indemnify himself at the expense of those whom he governs. The anarchy is in-

Laws.

creased by the obscurity and ambiguity of the laws. This vast empire is in want of a legal code more precise and more suited to the existing state of things than that of Soliman II. which consists of the substance of the institutes of Justinian and Theodosius, enforced by the moral precepts

* Ludecke, Relation de Turquie, 1. § 63.

† Lady M. W. Mont. vol. II. Letter 32.

‡ Porter, p. 79, 80.

of the Koran. Probably in this, as in other countries, the professional persons whose business it is to execute the forms which the law enjoins, and who are generally unwilling to acquire new habits in their business, would raise a clamour against all material improvement. Turkey is also in want of institutions capable of restraining the arbitrary power of men in place, and defending the execution of the laws from personal influence.

The general weakness of monarchs born in the seraglio has led them to entrust the cares of government to a prime minister, called the vizier-azem, or grand vizier. This personage is, in the full extent of the term, the vice-regent of the sultan. He keeps the imperial seal, he commands the armies in person, he arranges the finances of the state, he disposes of all civil and military offices. But the responsibility attached to his situation is dreadful in proportion to his power. To him are attributed all the misfortunes that befal the state, scarcities, conflagrations, military defeats, rebellions, and epidemic diseases. The sword, constantly suspended over his head, strikes him with equal certainty whether he displeases the people or the sultan. Encompassed with snares, and laid open to every person's attacks, it is rarely that in this high situation he reaches old age.

Grand vizier.

The divan or council of state consists of the principal ministers. The Reis Effendi is the High Chancellor of the empire, and stands at the head of the body of kodja or attorneys, which has contrived to acquire a great political influence, and which at the present moment contains the best informed men of the nation.

Divan.

The Uléma, or the body of doctors in theology and jurisprudence, is entrusted with the guardianship of the fundamental laws of the empire. These laws reduce themselves to the Koran itself, and the commentaries which the ancient doctors have written on it. The members of the Uléma, who are called Effendi, combine the judicial with the religious authority. They are both the interpreters of religion, and the judges in all civil and criminal causes.

The Uléma.

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None of them can be legally condemned to death without the consent of their head.*

Mufti.

The mufti, or sheikal islam, is the supreme head of the Uléma, and the vice-gerent of the sultan, as caliph, or successor of Mahomet, and the head of the church. The sultan issues no law, makes no declaration of war, establishes no tax, without having obtained a festa or decision of the mufti. This eminent office would form a sort of counterpoise to the almost unlimited authority of the sovereign, and might even paralyse its exertions, did not the sultans take on themselves the power of deposing, banishing, or even decapitating the mufti. This dignified person presents annually to the sultan a list of candidates for the highest judicial situations; they are from the body of the Uléma. The influence both of the mufti and of the Uléma would be far greater than it is, if they could maintain a good character for probity. But the venality of all the employments introduces into all ranks and conditions of the inhabitants of this empire such a keen cupidity and corruption, that the least favour or service conferred must be purchased by presents. The sentence of the judge, and the declarations of witnesses are purchased in the same way as any employment or any favour from a man in place is purchased. In no country in the world are false witnesses so common and so devoid of shame as in Turkey.

Judges. Administration of justice.

This is productive of a state of society so much the more dreadful, as all gradations of judges, the molla, the cadi, and the simple naïb, pronounce a sentence from which there lies no appeal. The Turkish jurisprudence is that of a tribe of wandering soldiers. After a few depositions or oath on each side of the question, the cadi pronounces his sentence supported by some passage from the Koran. To order the bastinado as the punishment of the common people's minor offences, to impose a fine, or what is called in the Levant an avanie, on a rich Greek or European, to condemn a thief to be hanged, constitute all the duties and

* Muradjee d'Ohsson, Description of the Ottoman Empire.

all the knowledge of an ordinary judge. Without information, and without intelligent pleaders, justice is awarded, or injustice consummated in a few hours. This is exactly what we must suppose to have been the method of proceeding in the camp of Othman. Hence the two great judges, that of Roumili or Europe, and that of Anadhouli or Asia, are denominated kadi-laskar, or "military judges."*

Yet the Ottoman empire is not without a species of popular representation. The chief delegates of the people are called ayams, from an Arabic word for "the eye;" their office consists in watching over the safety and interests of private individuals, attending to the good order and the defence of the towns and cities, to resist the unjust proceedings of the pashâs, and the exactions of the military, and to look after the equitable distribution of the taxes. These are usually men of the most virtuous characters, who, when chosen by the people, discharge this honourable function without remuneration. The ayams take the advice of the leading men of the place, and the practitioners of the law, to discuss the general interests, to put in due form such representations as are to be made to the pashâ, and to make out, in concert, any subjects of complaint against him which it may be necessary to present to the Porte. Almost every Mussulman, from the merchant to the lowest mechanic, belongs to some corporation, the heads of which are commissioned to watch over the rights of the community and of individuals. If the lowest member is arraigned before a *mékémé*, or court of justice, the heads of the body to which he belongs appear in his defence. Sometimes the whole body is known to intercede in favour of a person known to be innocent. Yet justice is for the most part only to be obtained by the payment of a sum of money.

Ayams.

Corporations.

* Tournefort, voyage du Levant, II. Lett. 14. Volney, II. l. c.

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The provincial administration is modelled on the same system by which the empire is governed. The pashâs, distinguished in rank by the number of tails or standards which they use, unite the military to the civil power, and, by an abuse still more prejudicial to the interests of the people, the greater part unite with these the farming of the taxes. They would be completely sultâns on a smaller scale, were not the judicial power entirely in the hands of the cadis. The pashâ with three tails possesses, like the sultan whom he represents, the dreadful prerogative of punishing with death any agent whom he employs, and even any individual who seems to threaten the general safety.* Some pashâs of three tails have the title of beglerbeg, as the pashâ of Sophia or Romelia, and the pashâ of Kintaye or Anatolia. He keeps on foot a military establishment, more or less numerous according to the condition of his revenues and the position of his pashâlic, and marches at the head of his armed force when the frontier is menaced, or when he is called on by his sovereign. The beys and the sanjaks, or sub-governors, are under his orders. This accumulation of powers often renders the provinces a prey to tyranny. In the capital, many things concur to restrain the spirit of oppression; the presence of the sovereign, a greater collection of well informed persons, an immense population, and the expectation of credit, of favour, and of power. The Grand Vizier watches over his ministers, and is watched by them in his turn. Even the Sultan has sometimes a secret police in pay. In short, the people, when they choose to rebel against their tyrants, by setting the city on fire, almost always find support in the jealousy or ambition, if not in the indignant probity of some powerful individual; but the provinces have no such resources to put in action against their pashâs. If, in the end, the numbers of complaints and insurrections demonstrate the insupportable oppression under which a province groans, the government

Pashâs.

Tyranny in the provinces.

* Ludecke, I. 60.

sends a capidgi with a secret order for his execution, or another pashâ with an army; the guilty pashâ is seized; his bloody head is exhibited on the gate of the seraglio; his wealth goes into the coffers of the state, and thus the people are revenged: exactly such another scene as the Roman empire exhibited with its proconsuls and its prætors, whose heads a centurion was very commonly ordered to bring and present at the foot of the throne, after they had for a sufficient time pillaged Gaul, Syria, or Africa.

Diversity of religions

One of the greatest misfortunes of the Ottoman empire is the diversity of its religions, with their reciprocal spirit of hostility. The Turks and other Mahometans do not form a third part of the population of that of European Turkey, and not more than two-fifths of Turkey in Asia. Three-fifths, perhaps two-thirds, of the whole population, consist of nations which profess Christianity. Besides the Greeks properly so called, there are Sclavonian tribes, such as the Servians, Wallachians, and Montenegrins, which follow the ritual of the eastern Greek church. This church, which the Roman Catholics consider as schismatical, persecutes with savage fury the inconsiderable number of united Greeks, as they are called, or those who acknowledge the authority of the Pope. The Armenians form a numerous church, which derives a great influence from its character for austerity and for probity. Other religious communities, such as that of the Jacobites, called Coptes in Egypt, the Nestorians and the Maronites, derive a degree of strength from the internal union which they respectively enjoy. The Druses are the avowed enemies of the system of Mahomet. The Jews swarm in Turkey more than in any country of Europe. All these associations are, in the eyes of the Turks, so many bands of conspirators. All, excepting the Maronites and the Druses, are restricted in the free exercise of their worship, subjected to marks of ignominy, and abandoned to injustice, without protection or defence: and all are actuated by a spirit of inveterate hatred to one another, and thus deprived even of that sad harmony which a participation in slavery might engender. Had the Turks conjoined a

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longer-sighted policy with their religious predilections, they might have, either by brutal force, or by a system of discouragement to an infidel in favour of a mahometan population, exterminated every race that was guided by an obnoxious faith. While from some quarters of Europe we contemplate the medley of religions that subsists in Turkey, whether shall we rejoice in the effect, while we despise the infatuation that tolerates and produces it, or shall we recognize in this fact a degree of laudable tolerance, to the renunciation of which some countries of Christendom owe at least a temporary if not a perpetual state of comparative repose? The total extirpation of the Mahometans from Spain, the determined and unrelenting extinction of the first efforts of the Lutheran reformation in that country and in Italy, and the rigid policy which the governments of these countries still maintain on the topic of religion, present a contrast to the practice in Turkey which the liberal and candid will not be forward to applaud.

Character of Islamism

The absurdities of the religion of Mahomet have undoubtedly been sometimes exaggerated. Its radical doctrines are certainly simple, and, even allowing that its precepts were unexceptionable, the pretensions of its origin are as unnecessary for any moral purpose as they are in themselves extravagant and overbearing. The very simplicity of its doctrines has excluded the spirit of inquiry and improvement. It has remained, as at its earliest appearance, a religion only adapted to a horde of conquerors. The exclusive attachment of its followers to the Koran, a book replete with raving follies, interspersed with a few poetical effusions; the inflexible fanaticism with which it inflames the mind, and the contempt which it inculcates for all profane knowledge, fetter the communications of its votaries with other people, and thus raise an insurmountable barrier against arts and sciences of every kind.

Prohibitions and religious customs.

The influence of this religion modifies in some measure the physical constitution of the Mussulmans, the prohibition of wine having generated among some a secret abuse of spirituous liquors, and among others a pernicious indulgence

in opium. The injunction of frequent ablutions induces rich individuals to build many public fountains; these maintain habits of cleanliness which are conducive to health. The Turkish burying grounds are pleasing in the eyes of the religious. The flowers which they carefully cultivate on the surfaces of their graves, the cypresses with which they shadow them, and the resort of families to these places to mourn over the memory of deceased friends, form a mixture of sorrow, devotion, and pleasing rural scenery, which gives an agreeable surprise to every traveller of sensibility.* The lents of the Mussulmans, which occupy at least seven months of the year, are rigidly observed. No necessity, however pressing, will induce them to dispense with the fulfilment of their rules. The fast of the Ramadan, which lasts for a month, precedes the Bairan, a festival equally solemn in Turkey as that of Easter is among the Roman Catholic Christians.

Dervises and Imauns.

The Dervises are monks who are addicted to acts of religion of an extravagant description, principally consisting in a convulsive species of dancing. The Imauns, or officiating priests of the Turkish mosques, enjoy no such credit and power as the body of the Uléma already described.

Progress of science and letters.

Such being the genius of the Mahometan religion, it is no surprise to find that the civilization of the Turks, in so far as literature and science are concerned, is still in its infancy.

Education.

Yet they have in some measure begun to feel the necessity of some public instruction. To the imperial mosques of Constantinople, of Broosa and Adrianople, *madressès*, or colleges are attached, to which the youth are sent from all parts of the empire, to receive instruction in the law of the prophet, in religious, civil, and criminal jurisprudence, and to acquire erudition in all the strange opinions and extravagant subtilties of the expounders of the Koran. They are subjected to various examinations, and, when they have made the due proficiency, receive the degree of *muderis*,

* Chateaubriand, Itineraire, I. 36. Castellan, Lettres sur la Greece, partie II. lettre 20.

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or professors. The colleges were founded by different sultâns: the first at Nicæa in 1330 by Orkhan; but that of the mosque of Soliman at Constantinople is the most esteemed. They have a considerable revenue, and support two or three thousand scholars. The pupils afterwards fill all the civil and judicial situations. But in Turkey, as in other countries, knowledge when limited to a few often merely serves to render tyranny more expert. In that country there is no channel for a general communication of thought. The Mussulmans certainly owe to their kodjahs, or writers, many works highly esteemed among them, on the Arabic and Persian languages, on philosophy, morality, the Mahometan history, and the geography of their provinces. These works, written generally in a bombastic style, may contain some knowledge, but they are not circulated among the great mass of the nation. The attempts made to introduce printing have encountered the powerful opposition of all the tribe of writers, as threatening to deprive copyists of their means of living, and consequently this art has never yet been able to acquire a permanent footing in Turkey. It is at least partly from that cause that this country is so far behind Christian Europe in civilization. Of late, however, this noble art has received the patronage of the Grand Signor, and several regular printing establishments have been formed.*

Attempts at printing.

State of the arts, and of industry.

The absence of scientific knowledge necessarily affects the state of the useful arts. Although the Turks, especially those of Asia, are not destitute of a taste for agriculture, this first of arts is in a languishing condition in all parts of the Ottoman empire. Those fields are indifferent-

* In the Revué Encyclopedique for May 1821, there is a review of a Turkish publication on Anatomy, Medicine, and Therapeutics, by Chanizadeh, a member of the Ulema, partly taken from the French, German, and English authors, in one folio volume, with fifty-six copper-plates, printed at Constantinople in 1820. This is the first scientific work that has appeared. It was written and published by order of the Turkish government, or rather in virtue of a Khatti-sheriff, or edict of the Grand Signor, who could only give it in his quality of Caliph, or supreme head of the church.

ly cultivated which are liable to be reaped by a rapacious pashâ, or by a body of marauders. Manufacturing industry maintains its ground in some cities, among which the most conspicuous are Damascus, Aleppo, Mosul, Angora, Kastamooni, Broosa, and Smyrna, in Asia; and in Europe, Constantinople, Salonica. Adrianople, and Rutshuk. The chief manufactured produce consists of carpets, moroccos, silks, Turkey thread, and sabres. Commerce is chiefly kept up by the exportation of raw materials, such as wool, silk, cotton, leather, tobacco, and metals, particularly copper. Wines, oils, figs, dates, almonds, Corinthian raisins, and other fruits, furnish leading articles of export. We also receive from that country madder, gall-nuts, alum, pipe-clay, and meerschaum.

Mahometan industry.

The Mussulmans are little addicted to commerce, but some of them are able agriculturists; and they show considerable dexterity as cloth manufacturers, tanners, and armourers. Their works in steel and in copper, as well as their died stuffs, equal or excel the most perfect productions of Europe in the same departments.* Their tailors and shoemakers are more intelligent than ours. The

Greeks.

Greeks, forming so numerous a body, are of course engaged in all the arts and professions. Among them are found the best seamen of the Ottoman empire; but their nautical skill makes a poor figure in the eyes of other Europeans,† with the exception of some of the islanders of the Archipelago.

Armenians.

The Armenians are the most industrious mercantile people in the empire. Patient, economical, and indefatigable, they traverse the interior of Asia, and extend to India. In every place they have their correspondents and their stores. The greater part of them exercise mechanical arts: they at the same time act as bankers, brokers, and men of business to pashâs and other persons of distinction. The Jews here appear in a more unfavourable light than even in the west of Europe. They

* Sestini's Travels in Asiatic Turkey, letter 25.

† Pouqueville's Travels in the Morea. Chateaubriand's Itinerairc.

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follow every sort of trade that promises to be profitable. The rich act as money-lenders, and the Turkish custom-house officers employ poor Jews to value articles for the laying on of duty.

State revenues.

Taxes.

In a state in which the ramifications of power are so singular, we cannot estimate the revenues on the same principles as in more regular governments. Many sums are levied by the pashâs, which never reach the hands of the Tefterdar-Effendi. It is the business of this minister of finances to watch over the great treasury of the empire, into which all the profits arising from the sale of great employments are paid; those arising from the renewal of the *barats*, or firmans, a sort of charters obtained by the zaïms, timariots, and other persons in possession of feodal tenures; the amount of the karatch, or poll tax, imposed on Jews and Christians; the rent of the domains that are in lease; and the custom-house duties. The *khasné-vekil*, a black eunuch, is entrusted with the general administration of the imperial treasure of the interior, consisting of the products of confiscations, and of the lands destined to the maintenance of the seraglio. The personal treasure of the sultan is committed to the management of the *khas-nadar-aga*, one of the confidential pages. This treasure, accumulated by the savings of the greater part of the sultâns, is kept up by the profits of the coinage.

The office of tchelebi-effendi was created under the reign of Selim III. when the tax was laid on wine, provisions, and the greater part of goods, such as cotton, wool, and silk. The revenue arising from this tax, known under the name of *nizam-djedid*, was appropriated to the maintenance of the new corps of cannoneers, bombardiers, artillery-men, and fusileers that had been formed, to the cannon foundry, and the manufacture of muskets, and other useful establishments: but a number of serious revolts having obliged the sultâns twice to abolish that system, it seems uncertain whether it will ever be able to triumph over the national prejudices. Some authors have asserted that the revenues of the Turkish empire are valued at L.6,670,000.

The Nizamdjedid.

and that the ordinary expences do not exceed five millions Sterling. On such estimates we have no data for delivering an opinion. BOOK XXIX.

Two able military authors have succeeded in showing that the Turkish armies have never been so very numerous as the fears of the vanquished led them to suppose.* Soliman II. when he struck terror into Vienna and the whole of Europe, had only a disposeable force of 150,000. The composition of the Turkish armies, both in their original and present state, is not consonant with the acknowledged principles of the military art. The Ottoman nation was, in its origin, only a warlike tribe, of which the Agas were the chiefs. This is the name now given to the feudatory proprietors of a zaïm and a timar. They are bound to give personal military service, and in time of war bring to the field one or more *gébélis*, horse or foot soldiers, armed and equipped according to the extent of their fiefs. The timar differs from the zaïm, by being of inferior value. The zaïms and the timars furnish a militia of 60,000 men. This soldiery long formed the chief strength of the Ottoman empire, and to it the first sultans were chiefly indebted for the astonishing success of their armies. The *spahis* are of older date than the janissaries; they have higher pay, and are considered as sons of mussulmans in easy circumstances. They fight under the same standards as the zaïmets and the timariots. They ought to succeed the latter in the possession of their fiefs, if the regulations of the first sultans were attended to. In the reign of Amurat I. the plan was adopted of taking a fifth part of all the prisoners to form a new corps of infantry, under the name of *Yenitcheri*, a term signifying new soldiers, and which we have converted into Janizaries. The necessities of war produced afterwards another very politic law, which embodied with these troops a tenth part of the children of Christians, and which remained in force till the reign of Amurat IV. Under Soliman I. there

Turkish armies.

Spahis.

Janizaries.

* Marsigli, Stato militare, p. 184. Warnery, sur le militaire des Turcs, &c. p. 61.

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were already 161 *odas*, or companies of janizaries at Constantinople, each of which amounted to 300, or from that to 800 men. The whole body might then amount to 100,000. At present, none but Mahometans are received into it. Several rich persons in the cities get themselves enrolled among the janizaries, with the view of being more effectually protected, and enjoying all the privileges attached to that body. They draw no pay, and obtain an exemption from all military duty by dint of money; accurate observers have rated the janizaries of Constantinople at a number varying from 10 to 20,000 effective men.* The rest of the empire may perhaps contain 60,000 janizaries, but they are not prepared to march against a foreign enemy. That body, once so formidable to Europe, is now so only to the Christian subjects of the Turkish empire. The personal courage of the Turks would still make them excellent soldiers, if they would deign to conjoin with it some knowledge of modern tactics. Attempts have been made, and are still making, to introduce European tactics among the Ottoman troops; but indolence conspires with pride to resist the innovation, and to frustrate its success.

Discipline.

Tactics.

The navy.

The Turkish navy, created by Mahomet II. and rendered formidable under Selim IV. fell into decay in the first reigns of the eighteenth century. After it was re-established, the Russians, in 1770, almost entirely destroyed it. Of late they have conceived the project of modelling it by the pattern of that of England. It is intended to consist of thirty ships of the line, with a great number of frigates, and other smaller vessels, particularly row-gallies, xebecs, and other vessels used in the Mediterranean. But they are manned with Greeks, who, with a deficiency of nautical skill, conjoin a strong inclination to betray the cause of their oppressors.

The seraglio.

To all these departments of the Turkish government we must join the seraglio, or court of the Grand Signor, his

* Riedesel, Remarques d'un voyageur, etc. p. 337. Porter, p. 154.

sacred retreat, which, however, has been more than once the scene of revolt, and in which fear and anxiety are often concealed in the arms of effeminate indulgence. Thousands of *bostangis*, or well armed gardeners, form a sort of guard to that vast inclosure, filled with palaces and gardens, which is called the seraglio. In the isolated buildings which include the haram, or abode of the women, some hundreds of eunuchs act as domestics, and at the same time as inspectors of a troop of concubines, which is more or less numerous according to the humour of the sovereign, and among whom love or intrigue may raise seven to the rank of *kadunas*, or wives of the sultan. The eunuchs are sometimes white men, sometimes black; some of the latter being from Negroland, others from the Sunda Islands; strangers to every sentiment that constitutes human worth, they succeed admirably in the arts of servility. Their head, called the *kislar-aga*, the ordinary confidential servant of the sultan, often acts a leading part in the state. These savage and stupid slaves have been known to amass enormous fortunes, to appoint the viziers, and to hold both people and sovereign subjected to their ignoble authority.

Such is an abridged view of the Ottoman empire: Disorder and weakness in the different branches of administration, oppression and restlessness in the provinces, the high ways overrun with robbers, insurgents in every quarter, neighbours powerful and ambitious, and no foreign alliance or support that can be depended on. The cupidity of nations and of sovereigns has an eye on the different provinces of this miserable empire. The barbarity of its character deprives it of all claim to commiseration in its approaching overthrow; and, while it will shield any aggressor from the charge of injustice, will conceal the selfish motives by which he may be actuated. The contending interests of different powers will prevent Turkey from falling entirely into the hands of any one foreign invader; and, in order that they may not engage in reciprocal contests, they will probably divide the spoil, according to

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their respective convenience, and their comparative address in negociation. Perhaps they will make a show of liberality, by establishing an independent government among the Greeks. It may be doubted, however, whether the humanity of the Greeks can as yet be trusted for the establishment of an enlightened and benignant policy. If an experiment of this kind should prove unsuccessful, it is easy to predict, that the nation must abandon political individuality, and associate herself in one common submission with one or more neighbours, under a different government. The liberal and humane wait with eager expectation for the total reduction of the Turkish power. The scenes of retaliation on the part of the hitherto oppressed, and certainly bigotted Greeks, which may be in that case expected, may prove equally horrible with those which they have succeeded; but, with the existing prospects of society, they are not likely to become equally lasting, nor to be permitted to prosecute the exclusive establishment of Christianity by inhuman measures, which are equally repugnant to the spirit of our religion, and to the first indefeasible principles of common candour.

A Table of the Longitudes and Latitudes of the principal places of Turkey in Asia, according to the best observations.

Names of the places.	Lat. N.	Long. E. of London.	Authorities.
Coasts of the Euxine.	deg.min.sec.	deg.min.sec.	
Trebisond	41 2 0	39 43 45	Beauchamp.
Idem	41 2 41	39 36 30	Connaissance des Tems.
Ounieh	. . .	37 19 37	Beauchamp.
Mouths of the Halys	41 32 52	36 11 45	Idem.
Sinope	42 2 16	35 7 12	Connaissance des Tems.
Idem	42 2 17	35 8 15	Beauchamp.
Cape Kerempé	42 5 30	33 6 15	Idem.
Iniehi (Eliehi)	42 0 26	33 56 30	Idem.
Amassero	41 46 3	32 21 31	Idem.
Eregli	41 17 51	31 27 20	Idem.
Remainder of Asia Minor.			
Island Marmora, eastern point	40 37 0	27 25 15	D. Galiano, Connaissance des Tems.
Castle of the Dardanelles in Asia	40 9 37	26 15 45	Idem.
Tenedos, N. E. point	39 51 15	25 53 0	Idem.
Cape Baba	39 30 15	25 51 40	Idem.
Brusa	40 7 2	28 58 27	Seetzen, Zach's Correspondence.
Akhissar	39 5 10	27 48 15	Idem.
Smyrna	38 28 55	24 44 45	D. Galiano.
Smyrna	38 28 7	24 53 38	Triesnecke, Archives of Lichtenstern.
Scio, town	38 23 27	. . .	Seetzen.
Chora (isle of Samos)	37 42 24	. . .	Idem.
Rhodes (harbour)	36 26 0	28 12 30	Niebuhr, Correspondence of Zach.
Idem	36 28 30	. . .	De Chazelles, member of the academy of sciences, 1761.
Idem	37 50 0	. . .	Greaves, Philos. trans. XV.
Cape of Chelidonia	36 13 25	30 20 25	Galiano.
Angora	39 31 0	32 41 42	Ephem. Géogr. XV.
Kutaieh	39 25 0	29 52 15	Niebuhr. Pococke.
Karahissar (Aphioon)	38 46 0	30 21 35	Idem.
Konieh	37 52 0	32 40 15	Idem.
Malatiah	35 11 0	40 54 45	Schillinger (doubtful.)
Merasche	35 6 0	40 4 15	Idem. (id.)
Cyprus.			
Cape St. Andrew	35 36 30	34 31 45	Galiano.
Larcana (the castle)	34 54 30	33 40 45	Idem.

Table continued.

Names of the places.	Lat. N.	Long. E. of London.	Authorities.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Larcana (the castle) .	34 56 54	33 47 45	Unpublished Travels. Connaissance des Tems. 1811, p. 205.
Nicosia	35 13 14	33 26 45	Idem.
Limasol	34 12 14	32 50 45	Idem.
Baffa (harbour) . . .	34 46 34	32 18 45	Idem.
Cirigna	35 25 0	33 21 45	Idem.
Syria.			
Cape Canzir	36 17 50	35 40 15	D. Galiano.
Latakia	35 32 30	35 44 15	Idem.
Tripoli	34 26 26	35 44 20	Idem.
Cape Blanc	33 11 30	35 7 15	Idem.
Aleppo	36 11 39	37 12 24	Simon, calculated by Monnier and Triesnecker, see Zach's correspond.
Idem	36 11 33	. . .	Niebuhr.
Jerusalem (Convent of Terra Sancta.) . .	31 47 46	35 41 25	Seetsen.
Idem	31 48 0	35 29 15	Paultre, map of Syria.
Country of the Euphrates.			
Erzroom	39 58 35	41 36 0	Beauchamp.
Diarbekir	37 54 0	39 20 15	Simon, calculated by Monnier*.
Idem	37 55 30	. . .	Niebuhr.
Idem	. . .	39 51 50	Simon, calculated by Triesnecker, in Zach. V. 316.
Merdin	37 18 48	. . .	Niebuhr.
Mossul	36 21 30	. . .	Idem.
Bagdad	33 19 50	44 24 45	Beauchamp, Mem. Acad.
Idem	33 19 54	. . .	Simon.
Idem	33 20 4	. . .	Niebuhr.
Hilleh or Babylon . .	33 34 0	44 13 30	Beauchamp, Mem. Acad.
Idem	. . .	44 24 42	Beauchamp, calculated by Triesneeker, Ephem. Vindob. 1800, p. 397.
Basra or Bassora . . .	30 30 2	. . .	Niebuhr.

* Compare with Zach's Correspond. III. 571, where the observation of Simon is re-established according to the philosoph. Transactions.

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ARABIA.

Situation.

ARABIA is a sort of peninsula, occupying a position intermediate between the rest of Asia and Africa. Its south-east boundary forms a part of the shore of the Indian ocean. On the opposite side it is bounded by Syria, a comparatively narrow stripe of country, by which it is separated from the Mediterranean. On the north-east, its variable limits follow very much the course of the Euphrates. From Persia it is separated by the Persian Gulph. From Egypt and Abyssinia in Africa, by the Arabian Gulph or Red Sea.

Historical sketch.

This position renders Arabia a sort of centre to the old continent. Sometimes it has offered a commercial route and intermediate emporium, by which the most distant nations have been connected in their transactions. At other times it has bred in its bosom revolutions by which the affairs of mankind have been overturned. The shades of antiquity conceal every thing that relates to the consanguinity of the Arabs with the Assyrians and Phenicians; a consanguinity indicated, however, by the mutual analogies of their language; nor are we acquainted with any particulars of the conquests of the ancient kings called *Tobba*, or the power of the *Homerites*, the princes of the country of Himiar. In the books of Moses and of Job an interesting picture is given of that patriarchial species of civilization, of which

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the manners of the Arabs to this day bear the indelible impression. According to some, Alexander the Great intended to make Arabia, or some situation on its confines, the seat of his mighty empire. The fleet of Nearchus was prepared to make the circuit of this country, when the death of the conqueror terminated all his magnificent designs. Under the Ptolemies, as well as under the Roman government, Egypt received from the Arabians, by the Red Sea, large quantities of valuable articles, which were considered as the productions of Arabia Felix. It was afterwards learned that the finest spices, the ivory, and the murrhine vases, came from India, Caramania, and Serica; but nothing could efface the brilliant idea which had been formed of Arabia. A general of Augustus made an attempt to penetrate the country of the wealthy *Sabæi*. Arabia was defended by its deserts, and was then, as it is now, divided into several small states, which enjoyed a prosperous commerce.

The cities, the temples, and the palaces of the Arabians were embellished with the precious metals which the Romans and the Persians had given them in exchange for spices, balm of Mecca, incense, precious stones, and murrhine vases, while the Arabians bought no foreign articles for their own consumption. The art of navigation was as yet low. The riches of India, and probably also of the eastern coast of Africa, were brought to their country in wretched canoes. Between the sailing of their fleets and their return, an interval of five years elapsed. It was only in the first century of our era that the monsoons were understood, and the navigation of the high seas rendered practicable. Such was the kind of civilization of the ancient Arabians, the subject of raving eulogiums among some modern writers. At an early period, however, Arabian colonies appear to have been settled extensively in Africa and in India.

Mahomet.

Arabia still flourished in trade and opulence, when, in the sixth century of the Christian era, Mahomet made it the scene of a political and religious revolution. This country, the first seat of a fanatical and conquering sect, soon be-

came the mistress of the finest part of the old continent. The victorious standard of the Crescent was raised on the cold mountains of Tartary, and in the burning sands of Ethiopia. Its dominion extended from Spain to the Molucca islands, perhaps even to the Archipelago of the Carolines. To the south, it went beyond Mozambique and Madagascar.

The Arabians have avoided the fate of other conquering nations, that of being conquered in their turn. They still enjoy their ancient independence. But they have no more Avicennas, Abul-Pharagiuses, or Edrisis. They have reverted to that low degree of civilization from which the keen and comprehensive genius of Mahomet had drawn them, by uniting them into one state. Divided at the present day among many sovereigns, weak, and harassed by a number of petty tyrants, Arabia no more presents to the view of the universe, those magnificent courts of the caliphs, at which genius and learning found such generous protection, and to which the Europeans, in a comparatively rude state, applied for the rules of the fine arts, and the models of luxury.

The Arabian and Persian Gulphs.

The first object to be considered in the description of the Arabian territories, is the nature of the two gulphs which form its eastern and western boundaries. The Persian Gulph is formed by a simple continuation of the banks of the Euphrates. The Arabian Gulph, commonly called the Red Sea, occupies a deep cavity which receives no river. Thus it presents to those who indulge a rage for hypothesis the appearance of an ancient strait which once united the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean, and which has been subsequently filled up at its northern extremity. Strabo has compared its shape to that of a broad river. Both of these gulphs are filled with sunk rocks, sand banks, and small islands, and allow but little space for a free and safe navigation. The north-east monsoon, which prevails from the 15th of October to the 15th of April, renders the entrance of that sea easy, which is impossible during the opposite monsoon. These pe-

Prevailing winds.

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riodical winds have great influence on the height of the tides, so that the extremity of that arm which divides Suez from Arabia may sometimes be passed on foot.* In the Persian Gulph the north-west winds, sometimes interrupted by storms from the south-west, prevail from October to July.† The south-east winds, which prevail during the rest of the year, favour the entrance of vessels into this gulph; they bring with them an extreme humidity. The tides and medium level of the gulph are subjected to great variation from the influence of the winds.‡ The shores of both gulphs principally consist of shell limestone rocks. Their bottoms are covered with a carpet of greenish coral; in calm weather the bottom, when it comes into view, is not unlike a series of verdant submarine forests and meadows, and thus even affords an agreeable contrast with the gloomy uniformity of arid and sandy country by which it is encircled.§ The coral of these seas is inferior in quality to that of the Mediterranean.‖ The beautiful fuci attracted the admiration of antiquity,¶ and procured for the Arabian gulph the name of *Bahr-Sooph* in Hebrew, i. e. *the sea of algæ*. That of the Red Sea, which was applied by the Greeks to all the seas round Arabia, seems to be derived from Edom or Idumea, which also signifies *red*. The wide plains skirting these gulphs appear to have been under water at a period comparatively recent. That which is called the plain of Tehama, runs only along the eastern shore of the Arabian gulph, whereas the Persian gulph, has on the north the plain of Chaldea and Mesopotamia, in the same direction with the gulph itself. Nowhere, says Pliny, are the depositions from rivers more perceptible than at the mouths

Alluvial depositions.

* Niebuhr, Description de l'Arabie, II. 303, &c. Paris edition.

† D'Apres de Mannevillette Neptune Oriental, Instructions, p. 24.

‡ Kazwyny, Antholog. Arab. de Wahl, p. 192. Arrian, Peripl. mar. Erythr. p. 14, 73, 74.

§ Forskal, Descrip. anim. p. 132.

‖ Plin. XXXII. 2.

¶ Artemid. apud Strab. Diodor. III. Plin. XIII. 25.

of the Euphrates.* The strait of Ormuz is not so narrow, nor so encumbered with islands, as that which justly bears the name of *Bab-el-mandeb*, (erroneously written Babel-mandel,) "the Gate of Misfortune," or the "Strait of Shipwrecks." We shall take another occasion to describe the islands of these seas; but we may here remark, that, in several parts of the Persian gulph, and particularly near the islands of Baharein, fresh springs rise in the middle of the salt water,† and that the Arabian gulph contains, in the island of Djebel-Tar, a volcano which appears to be extinguished. The principal chain of mountains of Arabia runs nearly parallel with the Red Sea, at a distance of from thirty to eighty miles. It increases in elevation as it extends southward, and it seems certain that it is continued in a line parallel to the shore of the Indian ocean, as far as Omân. This chain probably contains some mountains of great elevation. The pilgrims, in travelling from Damascus to Mecca, perceive at a distance of two days' journey, Mount Shahâk, rising like a tower in the midst of the plain.‡ The interior of Arabia is probably a high plain, inclining towards the Persian gulph. A great proportion of it is occupied by extensive deserts. But these deserts are separated by small mountainous Oäses, which seem to form a continued line from the south-east of Palestine to Omân.

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Natural curiosities.

Mountains.

All the rivers of Arabia are more or less a sort of occasional torrents. In Arabic they receive the common name of *Oeadi*. The dryness of the Arabian soil is almost proverbial; but a Turkish geographer tells us that the Nedjed, the interior plateau of Arabia, contains some lakes.§ Strabo, an eye witness, also mentions lakes which are formed by rivers.

Arabia partakes of the climate of northern Africa. The mountains of Yemen are moistened with regular showers from the middle of June till the end of September; but

Climate.

Seasons.

* Plin. VI. 27. † Ives, I. 360. Niebuhr, II. 169.

‡ Seetzen, Zach's Correspondance, XVIII. 389.

§ Hadgi-Khalfah, Djchan Numa, p. 1298. Tard. M.

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even then the sky is seldom overcast for twenty-four hours together. During the rest of the year scarcely a cloud is to be seen. At Maskat, and in the mountains of Omân, the rainy season commences in the middle of November, and continues till the middle of February. In the plains of the kingdom of Yemen, a whole year sometimes passes without rain. In July and August, the thermometer rises at Moka to 98° of Fahrenheit's scale, while at Sana, in the mountains, it only reaches 85°. In this last district it sometimes freezes, though rarely.* Edrisi mentions mountains in which it freezes even in summer.

Hot winds.

It is in the desert bounded by Bassora, Bagdat, Hâleb, and Mecca, that the hot wind is most dreaded, which is known by the name of *Samoom*, *Samiel*, and other analogous terms varied by the different dialects of the Arabs. It blows only during the most intense summer heats. The Arabs of the desert, being accustomed to an atmosphere of great purity, are said to perceive the samoom by its sulphurous odour before it reaches them. Its approach is also indicated by a redness in that quarter of the atmosphere from whence it comes. When it approaches, the Arabs lie flat on the ground, and even the animals hold down their heads. Those who are rash enough to face it are suddenly suffocated, and their bodies are observed to be greatly swollen, a phenomenon imputed by the Arabs to the operation of a subtle poison which it communicates.

Vegetation of the desert.

The arid deserts of Arabia have discouraged naturalists from exploring them; yet there are numerous mountainous Oäses shaded with date trees, and other palms, which might deserve to be visited. The sandy plains produce the same plants as northern Africa. They are chiefly of the saline and the succulent kind, such as various species belonging to the genera *mesembryanthemum*, *aloe*, *euphorbium*, *stapelia*, and *salsola*. They serve to alleviate the thirst of the camel, and present exhilarating objects to the traveller in the painful journeys of the caravans.

* Niebuhr, t. I. p. 5, &c. Cloupet in the Annales des Voyages, X. 179.

Vegetation of the shores, &c.

The sea-shores wear a richer and more varied aspect. The numerous rivulets descending from the mountains maintain along their banks an agreeable verdure. The plants native to the sand in the neighbourhood of the sea are in their nature the same with those of the deserts. But the banks of the rivers, the valleys, and the plains, enjoy a fertility which forms a complete contrast with the aridity of the mountains. Many of the plants of Persia and India, celebrated for their beauty or their usefulness, have been always indigenous also in this country. Such are the tamarind, the cotton shrub,* the banana or Indian fig, the sugar cane,† a species of nutmeg,‡ the betel, and all sorts of melons and pumpkins. The chief boast of Arabia consists in two valuable ligneous species. The one is the coffee shrub, the *Coffea Arabica;* the other, the balm tree, or *Amyris opobalsamum.* The balm of Mecca, the produce of this last, is the most fragrant, and sells at the highest price of all the gum-resins. The coffee plantations are cultivated in terraces on the western side of the great mountains of Yemen. A great deal of coffee is to be found in the provinces of Hashid or Bekil, of Kataba and of Yafa; but the climate of the departments of Oudden, of Koosma, and of Djebi is the most favourable to it, and yields it both of better quality and in great abundance. We are told that the Arabians have prohibited, under the severest penalties, the exportation of this plant, and that the Dutch, French, and English, have notwithstanding found means of transferring it to their colonies; but the coffee of Yemen still preserves its superiority. The Arabians say that they originally obtained it from Abyssinia: perhaps it was in that country that the use and cultivation of this article were first discovered.

The coffee shrub.

Balm of Mecca.

In ancient times, Arabia was not less celebrated for incense than for gold; but the incense which the northern

Incense.

* Plin. XIX. 1. Comp. XII. 10.

† Strabo, XVI. 535, 539 (ed. Atreb.) Plin. XII. 8.

‡ Abi Abdallah Ibn Bathouté, an Arabian traveller. MS. in the library of Gotha. (Seetzen.)

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nations procured from Arabia Felix was not wholly the produce of that country. That which is cultivated in the south-east part of Arabia in the neighbourhood of Reshein, Dafar, Merbat, Hasek, and above all, in the province of Shahr, is only the kind called *liban* or *olibanum* by the Arabians, the quality of which is very inferior. The soil of the mountains where the incense grows is of a clay texture, and impregnated with nitre. The Arabians procure several sorts of incense from Abyssinia, from Siam, Sumatra, and Java. This is exported by them in great quantities to Turkey; and the smallest of the three kinds of benzoin, sold by the traders, is more valued than the olibanum of Arabia.*

Different trees and plants.

There are some groves or thickets on the mountains of Arabia, but no forests properly so called are to be found. In the order of palms, Arabia possesses the date tree, the cocoa, and the fan-leaved palm. Among other trees, natural or cultivated, are to be distinguished the fig, the orange, the plantain or banana, the almond, the apricot, the *acacia vera*, (from which gum-arabic is obtained,) the sensitive plant, and others of the mimosa tribe. The fruit of the quince tree, and the vine, is enjoyed in perfection.† Among the shrubs and the plants, the *Ricinus communis*, (the castor oil plant,) and senna, both employed in medicine, are worthy of mention: also the *Gomphræna globosa*, or globe amaranth; the white lily, and the large *Pancratium*, all of distinguished fragrance; the aloe, but inferior to that of Socotora; the styrax, and the sesamum, which supplies the place of the olive.‡

Agriculture.

Wheat, Turkey corn, and doura, cover the plains of Yemen and of some other fertile parts of the country. The horses are fed on barley, and the asses on beans. Indigo is also planted, and a plant which affords a yellow dye called *ouars*, which is exported in large quantity from Moka to Oman, and the *foua*, which is employed as a red dye. The

* Niebuhr, I. 202.

† La Roque, Voyage d'Arabie, 268.

‡ Strab. l. c.

plough is of a simple construction. Mattocks and pick-axes are used instead of spades. The principal cares of agriculture consist in managing the distribution of the water for irrigation, which proceeds from rivulets, wells, or pools. In harvest, the corn crop is pulled up by the roots, and the hay is cut down with a sickle.*

Animals. Camels.

The camel has justly been called a living ship, without which the Arab could not cross the seas of sand with which his country is covered. Pliny and Aristotle have given an exact description of the only two distinct species of this genus which are known. The one, which is used in great numbers in Arabia, Egypt, and all the northern half of Africa, has only one hump, and was called by these writers the camel of Arabia. The other, which is found in Persia, in the south of Russia and in Bucharia, or the ancient Bactriana, has been called the camel of Bactriana. But among the varieties of the Arabian species, that which is best adapted for carrying burdens is distinguished from that which is fitted for running. Diodorus, Strabo, and Isidorus, in speaking of this last, distinguished it by adding the appellative *dromas*, or runner, to the Greek noun for a camel. This term has been converted by the Europeans into dromedary, which they have erroneously extended to all that species which is called the Arabian, and is distinguished by its single hump. The Arabian nouns *hadjin* and *raguahil* seem to apply to the two distinct races of this species, the former being destined for carriage, and the latter for running. The word *bacht* is the term for the Bactrian camel.† The Arabian and Bactrian species are capable of producing a mixed breed, but it is not certain if this is capable of propagating its kind.

Varieties of Camels.

Oxen, sheep, &c.

The oxen of Arabia have generally a hump on the back like those of Syria. In western Nedged, butter is used instead of oil.‡ We are not particularly informed about the breed of sheep; they have a thick and broad tail, which

* Niebuhr, I. 213, *sqq.*

† Bochart, Hierozoicum, lib. II. c. 4.

‡ Strabo, XVI. 537.

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they are said to drag behind them on a small carriage;* but their wool seems to be coarse, and their flesh none of the most delicate. The wild goat is found in the mountains of Arabia Petræa. The other animals are the jackall, the hyæna, different apes, the jerboa or rat of Pharaoh, antelopes, wild oxen, wolves, foxes, wild boars, and the great and little panther. A degree of respect bordering on adoration is paid to a bird, which is a sort of thrush, which comes every year from eastern Persia, and destroys the locusts, the deadly enemies of all vegetation. The esculent locust is found here, and is esteemed a delicacy.† As for birds. the plains are peopled by the partridge, the woods by the guinea-fowl, and the mountains by the pheasant. The ostrich is not unknown in the deserts. All the coasts abound with fish. That on the south east produces the shell called *pinna marina*, with its shining byssus,‡ and immense quantities of sea turtle, which form a chief article of subsistence to whole tribes. Land turtles abound in Arabia, and form the food of Christians during Lent and other fasts. There is a small serpent called *baćtan*, distinguished by white blotches, which is of a highly venomous nature, its bite being followed by sudden death. The large lizard, or guaril, found here, is said to equal the crocodile in strength.§

Birds.

Turtles.

Horses.

We must not forget the horses, which are the glory of Arabia. They are divided into two classes, the *kadishi*, or common, and the *koshlani*, or noble kind, which are considered as sprung from the breed of Solomon, and of which the genealogy has been preserved in the country for two thousand years. The greatest care is taken to preserve the purity of the race. They are capable of sustaining great fatigue, can pass entire days without eating, and

* Barthema, Navig. II. cap. 5, 9. Herodot. III. 115.

† Bochart, Hierozoicon, p. II. lib. IV. c. 6. Forskal, Descript. anim. p. 81.

‡ Ptolem. Geo. VI. cap. 7.

§ Kazwyni and Abdallatif in Bochart, part I. lib. IV. cap. 3.

make an impetuous charge on an enemy. The best are bred by the Bedouins in the northern deserts.

Asses.

This country also possesses an excellent breed of asses, which are sold high, and have qualities similar to those of the mule. In Yemen the soldiers perform their patroles on asses,* and every military service in which parade is not an object. They are also employed by the Mahometan pilgrims in their long and painful journey to Mecca. Niebuhr reckons the progress which the Arabian asses make in a half hour at 1750 paces, double those of a man. The large Arabian camels make 775, and the smaller ones 500. The trot of the camel is harsh and disagreeable.

Minerals.

According to Niebuhr, Arabia neither contains mines of gold nor silver, though a small quantity of the latter metal is contained in the lead obtained from the province of Omân. There are iron mines in the district of Saadé in the north of Yemen, but the iron which they yield is brittle. The onyx is found in Yemen. The agate called the moka-stone comes from Surat, and the finest cornelians are brought from the gulf of Cambay.† Niebuhr denies that Arabia produces any precious stones, and maintains that they are all brought from India. But the positive and unanimous testimony of the ancients will not permit us to doubt of the former wealth of the Arabian mines.‡ The country is in itself vast, and there is no reason whatever for refusing our assent to these accounts. It was in the mountains of Yemen that mines of gold were formerly worked; sometimes it was found in the body of the rocks, at others in loose nodules on the surface. Rock salt is still worked near Loheïa, and in several other places. The town of Gerra in the Persian Gulph was entirely built of this substance. The *aromatites*, or aromatic stone of the

Ancient gold mines.

* Grandpré, Voyage au Bengale. Compared with Bochart, Hieroz. part I. lib. II. cap. 13.

† Niebuhr, I. 197.

‡ Job, ch. 28. v. 45. Abulfedæ, Arabia, edit. Gagn. p. 45. Teiphasch, excerpta de gemmis, edit. Rau. p. 96, 102.

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ancients,* is probably amber, and the *Smaragdus chloe*, or inferior emerald, which, according to Pliny, was used as an ornamental stone in the walls of houses, was probably diallage.† Niebuhr observed in Yemen five-sided columns of basalt, blue alabaster, selenite, and various spars.

Divisions.

We now proceed to examine Arabia, as divided into provinces. By the ancients this country was divided into three unequal portions; Arabia Petræa, a small province situated between Egypt and Palestine, at the northern extremity of the Red Sea; Arabia Deserta, which extended towards the Euphrates, and towards the centre; and Arabia Felix, which comprehended the remainder. The modern divisions, as given by Niebuhr, are quite different. The series of deserts in the centre forms an extensive province called Nedjed. Hedjas is on the shore of the Red Sea, a little north of the middle of its length, and contains Mecca and Medina. Yemen is to the south of this, extending to the straits of Bab-el-mandeb. Hadramaut lies along the shore of the Indian Ocean. Omân is at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, and Lahsa or Hajar occupies the western shore of that gulf.

Desert of Mount Sinai.

The small peninsula formed by the gulfs of Ailah and Suez, attracts the attention of travellers by its ancient celebrity. There is nothing at all interesting in the town of Ailah, which gives its name to the eastern gulf, nor in that of Karak, which lies on the south of the Dead Sea, nor in the harbour of El Tor. Mount Sinai is an enormous mass of granite rocks with a Greek convent at the bottom, called the convent of St. Catharine. It is the highest summit of a chain of mountains, called by the Arabians Djebbel Moosa, and which requires a journey of several days to go entirely round it. This chain is partly composed of sand-stone. It contains several fertile valleys, in which are gardens which produce grapes, pears, dates, and other excellent fruits. These are taken to Cairo, where

* Pliny XXXVII. 10. † Pliny XXXVII. 5.

they are sold at a high price; but the general aspect of this peninsula is that of a frightful sterility. It is the favourite soil of the rose of Jericho, the bitter apple, and *apocynum* or dog's bane. There are also different ligneous shrubs, such as the *accacia vera*, or Egyptian thorn, which furnishes gum-arabic, a substance often used as food in cases of necessity * the tamarind tree, from which, in the months of June and July, a mild aromatic gum exudes, supposed to be the manna of the Scriptures,† and still called in that country *el-mann*, also the ban, or *Balanus myrepsica*, from which a much esteemed oil is obtained.‡ The caper, the rose-laurel (*nerium*,) the cotton plant, and various other shrubs, form scattered tufts of verdure in the midst of the dark rocks of granite, jasper, and sienite, and in plains covered with sand and pebbles. The few Arabs who wander in this desert seem to lead very abstemious lives. They have opportunities, however of hunting, as gazels and other sorts of game are to be found in considerable number.§ The coasts of this peninsula are lined with coral reefs, and covered with innumerable organic petrifactions.

Vegetation.

Sacred history and tradition have given Sinai and Horeb a character of sanctity in the eyes of Jews, Christians, and Mahometans. The latter, on their return from Medina, often honour with the sacrifice of a few lambs the place where the Almighty condescended to reveal himself to Moses in all his glory. Djébel-el-mokatteb is a great rock, situated on the road from Sinai to Suez, and covered with hieroglyphics, which have afforded ample matter for discussion to the learned. Niebuhr, in his visit to this spot, found a cemetery filled with magnificent grave-stones,

* Hasselquist's journey to Palestine (in German) p. 570.

† Seetzen, Zach's Correspondence, XVII. 151.

‡ P. Belon, observations sur diverses, singularités, p. 126. Celsii, Hierobotan. II. p. 1.

§ Sicard, Nouveaux Mém. des Missions dans le Levant, I. p. 26. (Paris, 1715.) Pococke, Breuning, Monconys, Thevenot, etc. Niebuhr, Description, II. p. 176. etc.

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on which beautiful hieroglyphics were carved; monuments which prove the former existence of populous and flourishing cities. On the route of the great caravan of pilgrims are the towns of Heddijé, Maan, and others, situated in fertile Oäses in the midst of Hedjaz, a country somewhat less desert than the neighbourhood of Sinai. On the coast, which the caravan leaves on their right, are some trifling remains of Madian, Haura, and some other places. On their left they have the city of Medina, which contains the tomb of Mahomet. The pilgrims are not obliged to visit this tomb. The tomb itself is as simple as can be imagined; but we are told that the mosque founded by the prophet is supported by 400 columns, and illuminated with 300 lamps, which are constantly burning. Here are also the tombs of Abu-bekr, and Omar the successor of Mahomet. Yambo is the port of Medina.

Hedjas.

Mecca.

All the soil pertaining to the city of Mecca is esteemed sacred. This ancient capital of Arabia was known to the Greeks under the name of Macoraba. The latter part of this word denotes its greatness; which, however, even in its most flourishing times, was perhaps less than one fourth of Paris. The soil is a barren surface of rock; the water of the holy well of Zemzem is brackish and bitter.* The pastures are at a distance from the city; the fruits used here are brought from the gardens of Tayef, situated among mountains, where it sometimes freezes even in summer.† The Koreishites, who ruled at one time in Mecca, were famed among the Arabians for their courage. They were prevented by the sterility of the soil from encouraging agriculture; but by means of the port of Jedda, which was only forty miles off, they enjoyed a most favourable position for commercial enterprises. An easy intercourse was kept up with Abyssinia; and the treasures of Africa were carried across the peninsula as far as Katif, in the

Commerce.

* Abulfeda, edit. Gagn. p. 29. Bakoui, Notices et Extraits, II. 417. Barthema, ap. Ramus. Navig. I. 151. Niebuhr.

† Abulfeda, Gagn. p. 43. Edrisi, clim. II. p. 5.

province of Hejer; there they were embarked on the same rafts with the pearls of the Persian Gulph, and were carried to the mouth of the Euphrates. Mecca is placed at a distance of forty days journey from Yemen on the right, and from Syria on the left. The caravans of Arabia used to pass the winter in the former country, and the summer in the latter. They met the merchants from India, who were thus repaid for the toils and perils of the navigation of the Red Sea. The camels of the Koreishites received a cargo of perfumes at the markets of Sana and Merab, or in the harbours of Omân and of Aden. They also brought grain and manufactured goods from Bostra and Damascus.* BOOK XXX.

That commerce has now changed its direction. Mecca at present only subsists by the wealth of the pilgrims who come to present their homage of veneration to the holy *Kaaba*, or chief temple of the Mahometans. In the common geographical works it has been usual to describe this temple as unparalleled for magnificence, with its hundred gates, and its gilded dome; but, from Niebuhr's description, the Kaaba seems to have more the character of an ancient Indian or Siamese temple than of a mosque. It is an uncovered open square, surrounded with colonnades, and adorned with minarets instead of pyramids and obelisks. This enclosure contains five or six chapels or houses of prayer. In the centre is a small square building called more particularly the Kaaba, the depository of a black stone, which seems to have been an ancient object of adoration among the Arabians.† Before the time of Mahomet there was a celebrated temple here,‡ to which all the tribes of Arabia resorted, who, after going seven times round this sacred building, kissed the black stone with respectful homage.§ Sheep and camels were offered in sacrifice to the 360 images which this temple contained, Kaaba. Antiquity of the Kaaba.

* Massoudi, apud Schultens. Historia Ioctanid. p. 181.

† Max. Tyr. Suid. &c. apud. Asseman, Biblioth. Orient. p. 534.

‡ Diod. l. 3.

§ Pococke, Specim. Histor. p. 311. Reland, de Relig. Mohammed, p. 88, &c. Mill. Dissertat. de Mohammedismo, p. 18, &c.

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and which Mahomet destroyed. Probably these were the spirits supposed to preside over the days of the year, and the god *Hobal*, placed on the top of the temple, represented the sun.

The mountains of Hedjaz contain several petty sovereignties. The Arabs who live here do not dwell in tents like those of the plains. They have towns and walled villages; and they defend themselves by means of small forts built on rocks and rugged mountains. Among these states is the district of Kheibar, which is north-east from Medina, and which is said to be inhabited by independent Jews, who live under their own sheïks in the manner of the Arabs. The Turks hold them in detestation, and accuse them of pillaging their caravans. The Jews of Kheibar seem to have no connection with those who live in cities on the confines of Arabia. Perhaps they belong to the sect of Karaites, who are more odious to the pharisaical Jews than even the Mahometans and the Christians.

Jews of Kheibar.

Nedjed.

On the east of Hedjaz are the vast deserts of Nedjed. According to Niebuhr this wide country extends from Syria on the north to Yemen on the south, and from Hedjaz on the west to Irac-Arabi on the east. Thus it chiefly comprehends the country called Arabia Deserta by geographers, a principle of division unknown to the Arabians. That part of the province more strictly known by the name of Nedjed is mountainous, covered with towns and villages, and filled with small principalities, almost every small town being governed by an independent sheïk. It abounds in all sorts of fruit, particularly dates. There are few rivers; and even that of Astan, which is marked in M. d'Anville's map as flowing from a considerable distance in the interior into the Persian Gulph, is nothing more than a *ouadi* or torrent which runs only after heavy rains.

District of El-Ared.

This province contains many districts. That of El-Ared, called sometimes Nedjed-el-ared, is conterminous with Hajar or Lahsa on the east. In it is Hanifa, a canton once celebrated, but best known in modern times by the

name of Darâie.* One of its dependencies is Aijana, the birth place of the new prophet Wahhab. Niebuhr places the district of Kerdje in the south-west part of Nedjed, and consequently on the confines of Yemen. In this, however, he was certainly mistaken. Khardg or Kerdje, according to the Arabians, is the same canton which has Yemama for its capital, a place of great note since the days of Mahomet, as the residence of the rival prophet Meseilama. It forms, with the cities of Lahsa and Yebrin, an equilateral triangle, of which each side is reckoned a distance of three days journey.† The mount El-Ared of Arabian geographers seems to be a ridge of limestone rocks, extending from north to south, of a prerupt form on the west, and gently inclining to the east.‡ It is the *Montes Marithi* of Ptolemy.

Yemama.

Mount El-Ared.

A traveller from Damascus, (Yoosooph-el-Milky,§) has procured for us some recent information respecting the interior of Arabia. By his account, it appears that, from the confines of the canton of Haurân to the banks of the Euphrates, the whole soil is one immense plain, without rivers or permanent springs, without the slightest elevation, without any trace of town or village, but affording vigorous growth to a few thorny shrubs, by which the traveller's eye is somewhat relieved. The name of this plain is El-Hamad, the *Al-dahna* of Abulfeda and d'Anville. This is the scene of the wanderings of different Arab tribes, as the Anaseh, the Beni-Shaher, and the Szeleb.‖ The tribe Montefik occupies the banks of the Euphrates from Korna to Arasje. To the south of this plain the caravans of Damascus on leaving Esrak, a journey of a day and a half from Bostra, follow for seven days the tract of a valley,

Journey in the interior.

* Niebuhr, Descr. p. 203. † Abulfeda, Gagn. p. 16.

‡ Idem, Proleg. p. 182. Rommel, Arabia Abulf. p. 86. Hadji-Khalfah, Djehan-Numa, p. 1450, 1451 MS. Compare with the Supplementary Notes at the end of the fourth volume of our work.

§ Zach's Corresp. XVIII.

‖ Seetzen, in the Annales des Voyages, VIII. 281.

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on the dry bed of a river, called *Wadi-Arab-el-Szyrrhan*. This tract leading south-east, brings them to the canton of *Djof*, called also *Djof-er-Szyrrhan*. At this place there is a high pyramidal tower. The inhabitants live in a state of perpetual civil war.

Djof-es-Szyrrhan.

It is said that there are wild dogs around it, which are used for food. After this, in the route of the caravan, there is a desert of stones of two days journey, and another of sand of three days, where wild oxen are met with, which sometimes afford opportunities for the chace. Behind this desert rises mount Shammar, covered with forests and villages; in height and extent it resembles mount Libanus. Here our traveller ended his journey, without even entering the canton of Shammar. This is the *Zametas* of Ptolemy, and the *Belid-shemer* of d'Anville, though that geographer places it too far to the west, and perhaps a little too far south. Our traveller learned that the town of Darreia, the capital of the Wahabees, is six days journey from mount Shammar. Darreia is reckoned among the Arabs to be at the same distance from the Persian Gulph; but Mr. Reignaud, an English traveller, who came from Bassora by sea to Khatif, had a journey of seven days to the town of Asha, a place where there are horses of singular beauty, though only fifty-five inches high;* he had then eight days journey across the desert before he arrived at Darreia, which he calls Drahia. It is an inconsiderable place, but handsome according to the Arabian style. The sides of the neighbouring hills produce all sorts of fruits. Excellent horses, and numerous flocks of black sheep are reared here.†

Mount Shammar.

To the south and south-east, Nedjed is separated from Yemen and from Omân by the desert of Ahkaf, which, according to tradition, was once a terrestrial paradise, inhabited by an impious race of gaints called Aa-

* Reinaud's Letter to Seetzen, Zach. Corresp. Sept. 1805.

† Compare with Hadgi-Kalfa, 1451, &c.

dites, who were destroyed by a deluge of sand, though their language continues to be spoken in the islands of Kuria and Muria.*

Aadites.

The towns of Nedjed carry on a considerable trade with one another, and with the neighbouring parts of Hedjaz, Yemen, and Lahsa; and we hope that, by means of it, some European traveller may find an opportunity of penetrating into the interior of Arabia, and acquiring for us a more exact knowledge of it. It is from Nedjed that the formidable sect of the Wahabees has sprung, whose power has excited the attention of Asia and of Europe.†

The Wahabees.

According to a tradition prevalent in Arabia, and especially in Yemen, there was a poor shepherd of the name of Soliman, who saw in a dream a flame proceeding from his body, which extended itself to a distance round him, destroying every thing in its way. He consulted the wise men on the meaning of this vision, and they answered him that it predicted the rising of a new political power which was to be established by his son. This prediction has proved correct; for if it has not received its accomplishment in the person of Abd-el-Wahab, the son of that individual, it certainly has in that of the next of the race, Sheik-Mohammed, who is in fact the founder of the sect which has assumed the name of his father Wahab. He has contrived to take advantage of this famous vision among his countrymen. He has persuaded them that he is a direct descendant of Mahomet, whose name he has taken. His doctrines are few and simple. He enjoins the worship of one God, eternal, omnipotent, just and merciful, a dispenser of rewards and punishments. The Koran he maintains to be a book written in heaven by the angels. Its precepts are to be followed, but all the Mussulman traditions are to be rejected. Mahomet he gives

Their founder.

His doctrines.

* Compare with Hadgi-Kalfah, p. 1358.

† Histoire des Wahabis, par M. L. A. Paris, 1810. Notice sur les Wahabis, par M. Rousseau, consul-general, annexed to his description of the pashâlic of Bagdat, 1809.

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out to be a wise man highly favoured by God, but entitled to none of that religious homage which is paid to him. He says that God, offended at this species of worship, has sent *him* to the earth to undeceive mankind, and that all those who shall refuse his instructions are to be utterly extirpated.

Political connections.

At first he disseminated his doctrine in secret, and made some proselytes. For the same purpose he took a journey into Syria. Not succeeding there, he returned to Arabia after an absence of three years. Here he was more fortunate, and found a protector in an Arabian sheik, called *Ebn-Sehood*, who was descended from the tribe of Negedis, the progenitor of *Sheik-Mohammed*. This Ebn-Sehood was a man of an ardent and courageous spirit, who, after raising himself to the situation of the chief of his tribe, had subjected to it two other tribes belonging to Yemen, and drawn over to his party all the wandering Arabs of that country. With this company he found himself in a condition to make frequent excursions, and in fifteen years his conquests were extensive. Desirous of giving them a still wider extension, he considered Mohammed as a person who might materially promote his views by inspiring his Arabs with additional ardour and enthusiasm. He therefore aided the propagation of a doctrine which had already made some progress among his people; and Mohammed readily connected himself with him as promising the most solid political support to his new sect. The whole of the people soon embraced his tenets. The new worship now assumed a regular form. The son of Abd-el-Wahab was proclaimed supreme head of the Wahabees. Ebn-Sehood held the temporal power under the titles of prince and general; and this partition of authority is preserved among the respective descendants of the two chiefs, who chose for their capital Drahia or Derreia, in the desert to the south-east of Bassora.

Ebn-Sehood.

Conquests of the Wahabees.

Ebn-Sehood next proceeded to realize his mighty projects of aggrandizement. He formed a well-disciplined army; and, by eloquent harangues, he inflamed their en-

fanatism. Sehood died in the midst of these projects, but his son, Abd-el-Azis, inherited his courage and his zeal. When he wished to subjugate any tribe, his method was to summon it to believe in the Koran as explained by him, threatening extermination in case of refusal. When they preferred the latter alternative, he put them all to the sword, sparing the women and the children, and carried off all the property of the conquered. If, on the contrary, the tribe agreed to submit, Abd-el-Azis gave them a governor, claimed a tenth part of their flocks, their money, their moveables, and even of the men, the latter being drawn by lot. By these measures he amassed great treasures in a short time, and collected a numerous army. The latter is estimated at 120,000 men. The Bedouin Arabs, one after another, submitted to a power which now embraces all that vast desert which is bounded by the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the environs of Aleppo and Damascus.

Manners and customs of the Wahabees.

The Wahabees hold the other Mahometans in abhorrence; yet they retain many of their ceremonies; their circumcision, their forms of prayer, their ablutions, their days of abstinence, the fast of Ramadan, and their holidays: but their mosques have no decorations, no minarets nor cupolas. They make no professions of respect for the memory of sheiks and of imâns, and bury their dead without pomp or ceremony. They live on barley bread, dates, locusts, and fish. It is rarely that they eat mutton or rice. Coffee is forbidden. Their clothes and their houses are as simple as possible. This nation is divided into three classes; the military, agriculturists, and mechanics; for they work at different mechanical arts. Their basket work, their woollen and cotton cloths, and their manufactures in copper and iron, are not inferior to those of the other Arabians.

Hajar.

Descending from the higher parts of Arabia, we enter the Hajar or Hejer, a province lying along the western shore of the Persian Gulf. The tribe of Beni-Khaled formerly were its sovereigns, but it now forms part of the

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Wahabee territory. Lahsa, a considerable town on the river Astan, is its capital, and sometimes gives its name to the whole province. Katiff seems to be the ancient *Gerra*, which was built of rock salt. Its inhabitants live by the pearl fishery; and when not rich enough to fish on their own account, they hire themselves out for this employment to foreign merchants. The ruins of an old Portuguese fort are still to be seen here. Koneit is another considerable town, called *Grain* by the Persians. Its inhabitants also live by the pearl and other fisheries, on the coast of Baharein. They are said to amount in number to 10,000. The whole of this coast is very populous. It abounds in dates, rice, and cotton: the rivulets are fringed with lilies and privets. But they suffer dismal encroachments from the drifting sand, by which whole cantons are sometimes invaded.* Taroot, a small town to the east of Katif, has excellent vineyards, which are sometimes flooded by the tides. It is here that we must place the *regio Macina* of Strabo, where the vines, raised in baskets of rushes, were sometimes moved out of their situation by the waters of the sea, and afterwards replaced by means of oars.† In some of the towns of Hajar there are woollen manufactures, particularly of a kind of cloaks called *abbas*.

Lahsa.

Koneit.

Fertility of Hajar.

Islands of Baharein. Pearl fishery.

The isles of Baharein, or Bahrein, in the Persian Gulf near the Arabian shore, may be considered as part of Hajar. This place is remarkable for the valuable pearl fishery which is carried on in its neighbourhood in the months of June, July, and August; a fishery which, in the sixteenth century, was estimated at a produce of 500,000 ducats.‡ The name Baharein signifies two seas, and seems to be of modern application; for Abulfeda, as well as the Arabians of Lahsa, call the large island Aual, a name which d'Anville has erroneously transferred to the peninsula of Ser, situated about 300 miles to the east. The large island

* Hadgi-Kalfah, p. 1370. Niebuhr, II. p. 198.

† Abulfeda, Gagn. p. 13. Strabo, XVI. 528. edit. Atreb.

‡ Texeira, Chronic. Armuziæ, p. 19.

has a fortified town, and abounds in dates, according to modern accounts. BOOK XXX.

The ancients have described it more favourably under the name of Tylos. Flat, and little wooded, it produced figs, grapes, palms, and cotton. A tree is mentioned, with flowers and leaves like those of the rose, which is remarked for an uncommon sensibility to light, by contracting in the night, and opening during day. The tamarind, which in Europe is a shrub, grew here to the size of a strong tree; as there was not that proportion of rain which was requisite to vegetation, the water of the sea was used for irrigating the orchards; the shores were lined with mangroves.* But from any thing we can now learn, the country must have changed. Beyond a wide unknown tract, in which the cities of Mascalat and Julfar are situated, we come to the territory of Omân. It is filled with mountains, which almost every where extend to the sea. This country abounds in grain and fruit. The sea along its coasts is so full of fish, that cows, asses, and other animals are regularly fed on them, and they are employed as manure to the fields. Its dates form an article of exportation. It contains copper and lead mines. The Imân, the most powerful prince of the country, resides at Rostak. But Maskat, or Muscat, is the largest city, and best known to Europeans. It is situated at the southern extremity of a bay about 900 geometric paces long, and 400 wide. On the east and west this bay is bordered with steep rocks, which afford shelter to the largest vessels against every wind. On the two sides of this fine harbour are some batteries and small forts. The town, where it is not defended by nature, is inclosed by a wall. Beyond this wall a pretty large plain opens, bounded also by rocks, which have only three very narrow outlets. Maskat was in ancient times, as it is now, the entrepôt of the merchant goods of Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. In 1508 the city

Vegetation.

Omân.

Maskat.

* Theophrast. Hist. Plant. IV. 9. V. 6. De Causis, Plant. II. 7. Compare with Pliny, XII. 10, 11. XVI. 41. Adrian, VII.

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was taken by the Portuguese. The prince himself is engaged in commerce. He has some armed vessels, in which he every year imports slaves, ivory, and other commodities from Africa.

Marine of the Omanians.

The inhabitants of Omân are the best seamen in Arabia. They have small merchant vessels called *trankis*, the sails of which are not formed of matting as in Yemen, but of linen as in Europe. These vessels are wide in proportion to their length, very low in the fore part, and very high behind. They have this peculiarity, that the planks are not nailed, but tied or sewed together. The greater part of the Imân's soldiers are Caffrarian slaves.*

The independent principality of Sehr lies towards Cape Mossandom, which commands the entrance of the Persian Gulf. Omân, and consequently all Arabia, terminates in the east by Cape Ras-al-Hhad, commonly called Rosalgat.

Hadramaut.

From this the southern coast first runs in a south-south-east direction, as far as Cape Kanseli, then south-west to the straits of Babelmandeb. The eastern part of this shore is lined with coral reefs and sunk rocks. Strabo says that trees grew here which were flooded at high water. These were probably mangroves. Next comes the mountainous country called Seger, where frankincense grows. Its harbours are Hasec on the great gulf of Kuria Muria, surrounded with isles; likewise Merbat and Dasar. Behind the country of frankincense lies Mahrah, a large hilly district, where a peculiar language is spoken. All these cantons seem to belong to Hadramaut, taking the name in its widest sense; but Hadramaut Proper is on the south-west, and adjoining to Yemen. Doan in this country is a large and fine town, but its inland situation prevents us from obtaining an accurate knowledge of it. It is twenty-five days' journey from Sana, and eleven from Keshin. This last city is on the sea-shore. Its inhabitants are remarked for their politeness to Europeans and other strangers. Its

Country of Seger.

Mahrah.

Hadramaut Proper.

* Niebuhr's Descrip. de l'Arabie, etc. II. p. 141, 16.

sheik possesses a considerable district in Arabia, besides the island of Socotora, celebrated for its aloes.* The sheik or Shibam is one of the most powerful in the mountains where the Kabaïls live. Hadramaut was celebrated in the days of Augustus for the bravery of its inhabitants. In several parts of it there are mountainous and very fertile countries, with interposed vallies, which are well watered by the mountain streams. From the different ports of this country there is an exportation for Maskat and the Indies, of frankincense, myrrh, common gum, dragon's blood, and aloes; and for Yemen, of stuffs, carpets, and large knives, called *jambea*, which the Arabs wear in their belts.

Yemen.

The finest province of Arabia remains to be described. It once formed a large kingdom under the name of Saba. Subjugated by Mahomet, and afterwards by Saladin, Yemen at last fell under a sort of subjection to the Mamelukes of Egypt. In 1517, having recovered its liberty through the declining power of the Mamelukes, it was threatened with a Turkish invasion; but in 1630 Amurat II. recognised Sejid-khassen-ibn-Mohammed, as king of Yemen, reserving to himself a nominal sovereignty. Since that time its kings have lost several provinces, especially on the north and east. Still the state of Yemen contains nearly 20,000 square miles, and probably a million of souls. The king is at the same time the chief of the sect of Zeidites, which predominates in the whole of Yemen. Hence this prince at first took the title of Imân, which applies in Turkey to the simple officiating priests attached to mosques, but in Arabia and Persia, among the adherents of the sects of Zeidites and Sheeites, means a doctor, or a successor of the great prophet. These Imâns, however, soon after stamped on their coin the more imposing title of *Emir-al-mumenim*, or "prince of the faithful." The true followers of their sect are said to honour them as caliphs. The throne is hereditary. The Emir is inde-

Political state.

* To be described in our account of Africa.

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pendent, and acknowledges no superior in temporal or spiritual concerns. He retains the power of making peace and war. Yet the brave and proud Arabian never submits to the least abuse of power. The emir cannot even inflict death on a Jew or a pagan, unless the accused has been tried before the sovereign tribunal of Sana, composed of a number of cadis, and of which the Emir is only the president. If the Emir evinces an inclination to despotism he is dethroned. Persons of rank are called *fakis*. The governors of districts are called *dolas*, and when they are of distinguished birth, they are denominated *walis*. The magistrate of an ungarrisoned town is called *sheik*; if the seat of his authority is a place of greater consequence, he receives the title of *emir*. There are also public controllers to inspect the conduct of the governors. But we need not detain ourselves longer with these details; they will be found at considerable length in the work of Niebuhr.

Military force.

The armed force kept on foot during peace consists of 4000 infantry, and 1000 cavalry. The soldiers, according to the oriental custom, wear no uniform; they are not instructed in any species of tactics, and scarcely know how to manage a musket. Yemen has no marine force, the vessels are rudely built, and their sails are of matting.

Revenue. Trade. Arts.

The annual revenues of the prince amount, according to Niebuhr, to nearly £80,000 sterling. This traveller conceives that they arise entirely from the duties laid on the exportation of coffee. Besides this valuable article, Yemen exports aloes and myrrh; the best comes from Abyssinia; also olibanum, or the inferior sort of frankincense, senna, ivory, and gold, from Abyssinia. The imports from Europe consist of iron, steel, cannons, lead. tin, cochineal, mirrors, knives, sabres, cut glass, and false pearls. The Jews are here the manufacturers in gold and silver, and even coin the money. Some muskets are made in the country, but they are indifferently executed. There are also in Yemen some linen manufactures, but generally of a coarse quality. A very active trade is carried on by the

Jews, who amount to 5000 families; but jealousy and superstition combine their influence to persecute this unhappy race. BOOK XXX.

Yemen, the most powerful kingdom of Arabia, is divided into several departments, and in a more general way, into the high country, called in Arabic Djebal, and the low country, which is called Tehama. The chief city is Sana, situated at the bottom of a mountain called Nikkum. According to Niebuhr this city is of no great extent; its circumference being about an hour's walk, including also some gardens. The walls are of brick. It has seven gates, and several handsome mosques and palaces, some of them built of baked bricks, and others of stone. The common houses are of bricks dried in the sun. It has several *simseras* or caravanseras for merchants and travellers.* Fuel is very necessary here, and extremely scarce, but the country contains some coal mines and some turf. Pliny says that the Arabians warmed themselves with odoriferous wood, but of this no modern fact furnishes a confirmation. The fruits are excellent, especially the grapes, of which there are several varieties. Provinces and towns.

According to the obscure accounts of Pliny and of Strabo, Mareb or Mariaba was the ancient metropolis of Yemen. M. d'Anville endeavours to identify that place with the celebrated city of Saba, known to the Hebrews, and mentioned by Ptolemy, Agatharchides, and some other Greek geographers. At the present day this town has become the capital of the country of Djof, which is now independent of the Imân of Yemen. In a contiguous valley, about sixteen miles long, six or seven rivulets join their streams. Some of them contain fish, and retain their water the whole year over. The two chains of mountains approach so near one another to the east, that a person may pass from the one to the other in five or six minutes. It is said that this opening was once shut up by a thick wall, which confined the rain water to be Mareb.

* Niebuhr, I. p. 230. (in German.) Edrisi. clim. I. p. 6. Ibn al Ouardi, part. 10.

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distributed through the fields and gardens situated along the bottom of these heights. This great dyke was esteemed among the Arabians one of the wonders of the world. The Arabian historians mention the bursting of the dyke, and the consequent disasters, as forming the commencement of a historical epoch, of which the learned have not been able to make out any consistent or probable account.*

Towns of the mountains.

In the Djebal or high country, the Imân possesses the town of Damar, the seat of the great university of the Zeidites; of Doran, in which there are large magazines of grain cut in the rocks; of Djobla, distinguished for the pavement of its streets; Taez, which boasts of its elegant mosques. Koosma is a town which is entered only by climbing up steps. It is a day's journey to ascend to it from the Tehama. Mnasek is a place where all the houses are cut out of the solid rock.

Canton of Sahan.

Independent Djebal contains large cantons, among which is Sahan, of which Saade is the chief place. It produces grapes and other fruits in abundance, and has some iron mines which are worked. The inhabitants of this province have little intercourse with strangers. Their dialect is supposed to come nearer that of the Koran than any other, though they know nothing more of that book than the name. They live on game, honey, milk, and pulse. They marry later in life than any other Arabians; live to a very advanced age, and retain their eye-sight till the day of their death. By plundering their neighbours, they enable themselves to exercise hospitality to visitors. Nedjeran, a small domain, is situated in an agreeable country, supplied abundantly with water, and lies to the east-north-east of Saade, at a distance of three days' journey. It produces great abundance of corn and fruit, particularly dates. There is a canton called Hashid-oul-Bekil, the numerous sheiks of which form a league, which is somewhat formidable to the Imân.

* Reiske, de Arabum epochâ vetustissimâ, &c. Lips. 1748.

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Towns of the plain.

Even in the plain, or Tehama, there are small states which have braved the power of this prince. Such is Aden, a town celebrated from the remotest periods for its commerce and the excellence of its harbour on the Indian Ocean. The Arabian geographers tell us that it maintained an extensive intercourse with India and China in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries: there the riches of the east were accumulated on a tract of rock destitute of water and of trees.* Aden, devastated in the wars of the Turks and Portuguese, has lost its commerce since it submitted to the Imâm. This prince is master of the best towns on the Arabian Gulf, such as Moka, the name of which sounds so delightful in the ears of every one who is curious in coffee; Beit-el-Fakin, which, from the excellence of its harbour, exports more of this article than any other place; Loheia, which also exports it in large quantity, though of an inferior kind; and Zebid, which is not the ancient Sabotha, but which enjoyed all the trade before the destruction of its harbour. The isle of Kamaran, fertile but unhealthy, contains, in a good state of preservation, a handsome aqueduct built by the Portuguese.

Aden.

Manners of the Arabians.

Having thus gone over the topography of Arabia, let us take a short and comprehensive view of its inhabitants. The Arabians are of the middling size, lean, and apparently dried up by the heat; an appearance no doubt arising in part from their abstemiousness, and the habit which they have of dispensing occasionally with liquids for a length of time. Their complexion is brown, their eyes dark, and their hair black; swift in running, and dexterous horsemen. They have the general character of bravery, of dexterity in handling the bow and the lance, and of being good marksmen ever since they have become familiar with the use of fire arms. Gravity of deportment, regarded among the people of the east as a mark of good breeding, seems less natural to the Arabians than it is to

* Edrisi, clim. I. p. 5. Ibn al Ouardi, edit. Hyland. part. 10. Notices et Extraits, II. p. 46. etc.

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the Turks. Robbery is the open profession of many of those tribes which are called Bedouins. In the commercial towns, the art of cheating is employed as a substitute. These vices are supposed to be the offspring of the want of a regular government, but it may be hoped that other means of counteracting such dispositions may be in reserve, besides the presence of an extensive imperial authority in such forms as institutions of this kind have been hitherto known. The ancient patriarchal hospitality of this country still remains. A simple traveller, throwing himself on the protection of a respectable sheik of the desert, may depend on the best reception. In the villages of the Tehama some public houses are found, where travellers are lodged and fed without expense for some days. When the Arabians are at meals, any person who chances to come in is invited to eat with them, without any distinction of religion or of rank. It is said that, when a Bedouin sheik eats with a traveller, it is a sure pledge that he will give him his best protection. Sometimes a person who has just been robbed happens to enter the tent of the robber without knowing it; the latter tries to console him, by reminding him that God is sufficiently merciful to repay his losses, gives him a suit of clothes different from his own, while the other, in the mean time discovering the fact, still keeps up the appearance of ignorance. In politeness the Arabians emulate the Persians. They always kiss the hand of a superior as a token of respect.

Hospitality.

Their houses, even when built of stone, are wholly destitute of taste. The men's apartments are in front; their jealousy, matured into a peculiar form of decency, places those of the women behind. Even the poor Bedouin divides his tent into two apartments by a curtain, behind which the women are concealed from the eye of indiscreet curiosity. The Arabian is sober in perfection. The common people have only one meal of bad bread, made of *doura*, which exactly resembles thin barley cakes after they have been kept so long as to be perfectly dry, and as hard as stone. They sometimes use a species of millet.

Houses.

Food.

With these they take camel's milk, butter, grease, or vegetable oil. Pure water is their beverage; animal food is very little used; pork was proscribed among them long before the time of Mahomet.* At their meals they set small tables about a foot high on a large carpet laid on the ground or on mats, where the guests are seated. Like other Orientalists they are passionately fond of pastry. Their favourite liquor is coffee, which they prepare by burning in an open pan, and pounding in a stone or wooden mortar. This method is supposed to preserve a flavour which is lost by grinding it in a mill. The people of Yemen rarely use coffee, considering it as of a heating nature; but they prepare a liquor resembling tea from the coffee husks. Arabs of distinction make use of Chinese porcelain. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden by law, are not unknown in Arabia; a plant resembling hemp is often smoked, and is productive of a species of intoxication.†

Dress.

The Arabians, like the Persians, are fond of long flowing garments. They also wear wide short tuckered trowsers, with an embroidered leather girdle over them, under which is stuck a shining poniard or dagger. They all wear the cloak called *habba;* it is a large double square piece of cloth, with a slit at the middle for the neck, and one on each side for the arms. The fabric of these mantles is of goat's and camel's hair very closely woven. The proof to which they are subjected in buying, is to pour on them a pail of water, which they sometimes retain, without transmitting a single drop, for a quarter of an hour. The Arabians load their heads with a number of caps, which they encircle with several folds of a scarf. In general they wear nothing on the legs or feet, the soles of their feet being hardened by use to bear the heated sand without inconvenience. In the mountains, however, they use sheep skins as a protection to them. Some shave the head, others

* Mill, Dissert. de Mahomedismo, p. 25, 118. Hieronym. in Jovinian. II. c. 6.

† Niebuhr, I. *passim.*

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do not. The women of the lower orders wear nothing but a large shift and pantaloons. In the Hedjaz, as in Egypt, their eyes only are seen through the muslins with which their heads are covered; in Yemen they wear long veils. An Arabian female who was surprised naked by M. Niebuhr, covered her face with her hands, disregarding all other exposure. Arabian coquetry displays itself by showing off rings, bracelets, and necklaces of false pearls. Sometimes, like the women of Indostan, they wear rings in the nose in addition to the more common ornament of pendants to the ears. They use the juice of the *henné* to dye their nails red, and their feet and hands of a yellowish brown;* their eyelids are blackened with the native sulphuret of antimony. The practice of marking the skin with the figures of animals, flowers, or stars, which was in existence before the time of Mahomet,† has still left some traces among the Bedouin women.‡ The fashions of this part of the east are subject to very little change. The dress of Esther, Sulamith, and other personages of the Old Testament, probably was on the same model with that which is seen on the women of rank of modern Arabia.§

Female dress.

Marking of the skin.

Arabian gallantry.

The constraint to which the Arabian women are subjected does not altogether prevent intrigues. But the youth who is bold enough to trespass on the sanctuary of the harem finds his path encompassed with perils, battles, and death. The pastoral life of the Bedouins affords greater freedom to their women; and the desert is the general theatre of the keen passions depicted in the Arabian tales.‖ In the Song of Solomon, and various love songs and tales, the taste of the Arabian connoisseur in beauty

* For an account of the henné see a note of M. Langles, Collection portat. des Voyages, II. 127.

† Moallakat, trad. de Hartmann, p. 69—125. Taraphae Moalkaliat, ed. Reiske, p. 45.

‡ Arvieux, Mémoires, edit. Labat. III. 297.

§ Hartmann on the Toilette of the Hebrew Women, in German. Schroder. de vestitu mulierum Hebræarum.

‖ Medjnoon and Leïla, Fr. translation of M. Chezy, pref. XXV. etc. etc.

is exhibited in the poetical portraits drawn of the favourite female. "Her form is tall and slender like the rush which bends before the wind, or like the lances of the men of Yemen. Voluminous at mid height from right to left, she enters with difficulty by the tent door. Two firm pomegranates swell the alabaster white surface of her bosom. Her eyes are lively and tender like those of the antelope; her eyebrows arched; and her black hair, drawn together with a clasp, waves over the neck like the camel's."* The complexions of the lower orders of women in the maritime plains are a deep yellow; but in the mountains, even the females of the peasantry exhibit forms and complexions which Greece and Italy would not disclaim.

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The ancient language of Arabia seems to have had a near resemblance to the Hebrew. Before Mahomet's time there were two leading dialects, that of the Ham-yarites, or Homerites, which prevailed in Yemen; and that of the Koreishites, which was used in the country round Mecca. The latter was the least agreeable and pure of the two, but the promulgation of the Koran, and the victories of Mahomet gave it a triumph over the other.† This sacred language is taught in the schools by fixed rules; in it alone the public instructions in the mosques are delivered. The present language of the learned, and which is also employed in solemn addresses, does not differ from it in construction, or in the application of its terms.‡ But a similar uniformity does not extend to the vulgar Arabic, which, like all languages that are widely diffused, has experienced many admixtures and alterations.§ Not only do the people speak differently in the mountains and the Tehama of

Arabic language and its dialects.

* Passages from Hariri, Ibn Doreid, Motannabi, and others, collected in Hartmann's Aufklerungen über Asien, I. 549, etc.

† Pococke, Specimen Historiæ Arabum, p. 150. Eichhorn's Preface to the German translation of Richardson's Treatise on Oriental Literature. Adelung's Mithridates, I. 383, &c.

‡ Aryda, chief priest of Tripoli in Syria, Memoir in answer to Niebuhr, in Arabic. See Iahn's Chrestomathie Arabe, p. 222, (Vienna, 1802.)

§ Niebuhr, I. 118, etc.

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Yemen, but people of rank have a pronunciation difficult to imitate, and terms for various objects different from those of the peasantry; and all these dialects have but a slight conformity with that of the Bedouins. In the distant provinces the difference is still greater. It is by the junction of dialects so numerous, that the Arabic language boasts of so copious a vocabulary. In treatises on the subject we are told that it has no less than a thousand terms for a camel, and five hundred for a lion. The pronunciation of the south and of the east is easier for the organs of the inhabitants of the south of Europe than that of the Arabs of Egypt and Syria. Our northern nations possessing a greater variety of consonants, especially of those called gutturals, are more capable of acquiring it. The conquests of the Arabians have disseminated their language along the southern shore of the Mediterranean, from Egypt to the straits of Gibraltar, and from the island of Madagascar along the whole shore of the Indian Ocean.

Written characters.

The most ancient characters used in Arabia seem to be those called the Persepolitan, formed of long lines, broad and split at one end, and brought to a point at the other, distinguished from one another chiefly by position and size, compared by some writers to nails, by others to arrows, and called the nail-headed or arrow-headed characters. These were succeeded by the Ham-yaric, so called from a dynasty of that name; and these gave place to the Kufic or old Arabic characters.

General remarks on the Arabic language.

The Arabic language is not so difficult of acquisition as its alleged multiplicity of terms and dialects might lead us to suppose. Among the other difficulties which are to be encountered in the mode of teaching languages generally employed, much waste of time arises from the attention of the pupil being first directed to the written or printed characters. If the sounds were represented, in the first instance, by judicious and well understood combinations of the elements of our own alphabet, and if a considerable advancement in the knowledge of words were made on that plan, all that is essential would be speedily acquired, and

the use of the characters would be afterwards more easily studied, and with greater interest. The dialects have been represented by some as equally distinct from each other as the different languages of Europe are. But this is by no means the case. A native of Morocco or of Malta can converse without difficulty with Egyptians and Arabians. The Maltese servants who went with the British army in their expedition to Egypt, were very useful interpreters. The wide extent of countries in which this language is spoken and written, the works in history and science, and even in poetry and the belles letters, which it contains, its affinity to the classical language of Persia, as well as to that of the Old Testament, and the light which is thrown by it on philology, general grammar, and the genealogy of languages, furnish motives sufficient to make the acquisition of the Arabic language very desirable to every liberal scholar.

Literary studies of the Arabians. Education.

Although science in Arabia is reduced to some crude notions of medicine, and some of the reveries of astrology, the ardent genius of this people is exhibited and proved in the numerous poetical turns of thought which are contained in the Koran. Morality and poetry are still the favourite objects of their studies. The country of Djof, in the kingdom of Yemen, contains several persons who possess the talent of writing extempore verses. Education, though it has declined in Arabia, is not altogether neglected. Several of the common people can both read and write. The higher classes keep teachers in their houses for the instruction of their children and young slaves. In general, every mosque has a school attached to it, and a revenue, arising from the donations of the charitable, is devoted to the maintenance of the teacher, and of poor scholars. The large towns contain many other schools to which the children of the middling classes are sent for reading, writing, and arithmetic. The girls are taught separately by female instructors. In some of the chief towns there are colleges for astronomy, astrology, philosophy, and medicine. The kingdom of Yemen has two famous univer-

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sities or academies; one at Zebid for the Soonnites, and the other at Damar for the Zeidites. The explanation of the Koran, and the history of Mahomet and the first caliphs, are the branches of study most generally attended to.

Religion.

The extraordinary man who founded the Mahometan religion, had to contend with the ancient idolatry of the Arabians. In remote times human sacrifices were in use among them, as well as among their neighbours the Syrians and Carthaginians. Sabeism, or the worship of the heavenly bodies, was common to them with the people of Syria and Chaldea. The Christian religion had made some progress in Arabia before the time of Mahomet. The country contained numerous tribes of Jews who followed this ancient worship.* The Arabian prophet had some difficulty in reducing them. His church, like every other, is divided into parties maintaining contradictory opinions. Besides the sect of the Soonnites, there is another very considerable one, which goes by the name of the Zeidites. In doctrine they seem to agree with the former, but are less rigid in their religious observances. Towards the middle of the last century, a sheik of Yemen formed a new sect about the same time that the religion of the Wahabees sprung up in the centre of Nedjed. The Sheeites, or the sect of Ali, prevail along the Persian Gulf. In Omân another sect has arisen, rather of a political than a religious nature: its adherents are called Bejas, and they do not acknowledge any of those great prerogatives which the descendants of Mahomet exercise, particularly in the province of Hedjaz.

State of the arts.

Having already given some view of the arts and commerce, as existing in Yemen and Omân, we subjoin a few general remarks. The arts are neglected in Arabia. There is no printing press in the country. The chief obstacle to this art is, that the modern Arabic letters be-

* See the passages collected in Schultens, Historia Joctanidarum, p. 61, 62—144.

ing mutually connected and often placed above one another or interlaced, are thought more handsome when well written than when printed. Hence, printed works are so offensive to the eye that no person will read them. This obstacle, however, we may expect to see removed by the use of that elegant recently discovered art called the lithographic, by means of which written characters continuous without interstices, are impressed with a saving of labour equally great, if not greater, than that attending typography, as compared with that of multiplying copies with the pen. As the zealous Soonnites allow of no figures of objects, painting and sculpture are arts unknown in Arabia; but their inscriptions in relief are well executed. Gold and silver are very well worked in Yemen. But this art is chiefly carried on by Jews and Banians. Clock and watch-making are neither much advanced nor greatly esteemed. Music is also neglected, at least no instruments except drums and fifes are used. All mechanics work in a sitting posture. There are some sorts of employments in which the Arabians use their toes with the same dexterity as we do our fingers. No wind mills or water mills are found in Arabia, but Niebuhr having seen in Tehama an oil press which was turned by an ox, thought it probable that corn mills of the same description were also used.

Arabia probably contains a population of ten or twelve millions, who, united under one political head, might prove a formidable enemy to Persia, Turkey, or the whole of Africa.

BOOK XXX.

Table of the Geographical Positions of Arabia.

Names of places.	Lat. N.	Long. E. of London.	Authorities.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Tor (in Arabia-Petrea)	. . .	33 33 10	Unpublished Travels, quoted in the Connaissance des Tems.
Idem	28 12 19	. . .	Niebuhr, in Zach's Corresp.
Ras Abou Mohammed	27 50 0	. . .	Unpublished Travels, Connaiss. des Tems.
Kalaat-el-Moïlah	27 28 0	. . .	Idem.
El Hamman Firaun	. . .	33 3 40	Idem.
Jemboa	24 7 6	37 32 30	Idem.
Idem	24 5 6	. . .	Niebuhr in Zach's Corresp.
Ras-Abiad	23 30 0	. . .	Unpublished Travels, Connaiss. des Tems.
Arabog	22 23 0	38 52 0	Idem.
Gedda or Djidda	21 32 42	39 6 0	Idem.
Idem	21 28 23	39 25 0	Niebuhr, by lunar distances, Zach's Corresp. VI. p. 166.
Mecca	21 28 9	40 14 6	Unpublished Travels, Connaiss. des Tems.
Ghumfude	19 7 0	41 42 0	Niebuhr, in Zach's Corresp.
Loheia	15 42 8	24 8 45	Niebuhr, in Zach, calculated by Father Hell. *d*
Beit-el-Fakih	14 31 17	. . .	Idem, Corresp. of Zach.
Zebid	14 12 0	. . .	Idem.
Taais	13 34 7	. . .	Idem.
Sana, capital of Yemen	15 21 6	. . .	Idem.
Moka	13 18 41	. . .	Idem.
Idem	13 16 0	43 10 15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Island of Perim in the strait of Babel-Mandeb	12 38 0	. . .	Niebuhr.

d According to several observations of the Satellites of Jupiter, but in the Corresp. of Zach. VII. p. 69, Niebuhr has given observations of the lunar distances, which seem to give a different result.

N. B. As the ancient and modern political divisions offer nothing certain, and are in a great measure unknown, no comparative Table is given.

BOOK XXXI.

PERSIA.

Its general Physical Geography.

General view.

The leading division of Persia, in modern times, is into two monarchies; that of the Afghans on the east, and that of Futté-Ali-Sha on the west. Therefore, though these political divisions are liable to continual change, we shall assign separate portions of our work to these two parts, entitling the latter Afghanistan. Persia, however, being the most conspicuous, as well as the most ancient in a political point of view, and having included, at different times, and for long periods, the territory at present in the hands of the Afghâns, some of our general descriptions under the head of Persia will extend beyond the limits of the modern Persia, especially towards the east, where indeed the boundaries are in some degree uncertain. The range of country comprehended in these two monarchies reaches from the basin of the Tigris and Euphrates on one side, to those of the Sinde or Indus, and of the Oxus, or Gihon on the other, forms a great natural region washed by the Caspian sea on the one side, and on the other by the Persian gulph, and the Indian ocean; and though this vast plateau is greatly diversified, and comprehends several distinct basins, there are still so many points of resemblance among them as to form one whole.

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Ancient political divisions.

The political revolutions to which this country has constantly been a prey have most frequently ended in a union of it under one sceptre. In the earliest dawn of history, we find it possessed by several independent nations; the Persians in the south, the Arians in the east, and the Medes in the centre; different barbarian hordes—as the Hyrcanians, Parthians, and Cadusians, on the north. It is a matter of doubt whether the ancient empires of Nineveh and Babylon ever included ancient Persia, that is, the present *Fars*, with Kerman and Laristan. History hangs in suspense about the truth of the marvellous expeditions of Semiramis; but we know that every momentary inroad figures as a conquest in the chaos of primitive history. The Medes, however, really subjugated the Persians. That people seems to have first carried their arms against the Scythians of Asia, in Tooran or the present Tartary, and against the Indians. Five centuries before the Christian era, Cyrus delivered his nation from the yoke, and gave it the sovereignty over the whole of western Asia. But on entering Europe, the little nation of the Greeks arrested the progress of the numberless armies of Asia. Soon after, united under Alexander, they overthrew the feeble colossus of the Persian power. After his death, when the discord of the victors gave rise to a multitude of separate kingdoms, the warlike tribe of the Parthians about the year 248 before Christ, took possession of the provinces which form the modern Persia. The Greeks still maintained their ground in Bactriana. Demetrius, their king, subjugated and civilized Indostan. Eucratides, the first, reigned over a thousand cities. But the Scythians, or rather the new nations which succeeded to the Scythians, uniting with the Parthians, overthrew the Bactrian throne. The Parthians, under their king of the Ashkanian dynasty, the Arsacides of the Greek historians, successfully resisted the progress of the Roman power. Towards the year 220 of the Christian era, a private man in Persia, according to the Greek authorities, wrested the power *out* of the hands of the Parthians, and founded the dynasty

of the Sassanides. But the oriental writers do not consider the modern Persians as distinct from the Parthians; and, according to them, Artaxerxes, or Ardshir, is descended from the royal blood of the Parthians. Whatever be the fact on this dark point, the Persian empire often struggled against that of Constantinople; and having made a brilliant appearance under the sway of the wise Noosher-van, submitted to the Arabians, and to the Mahometan religion, about the year 636.

Dynasty of the Sophis.

Two centuries after this the kingdom of Persia was re-established in Khorasan; and, after several revolutions, recovered its original extent of territory. In the year 934 the house of Bouiah ascended the throne, Shiraz being the seat of government. Persia was included in the conquests of Gengis-Khan in 1220, and Tamerlane in 1392, and recovered its freedom again under the Sophis, who ascended the throne in 1506. Shah-Abbas, surnamed the Great, began in 1586 a reign of nearly half a century, which was brilliant but tyrannical. In 1722 Persia was conquered by the Afghans. This event was followed in 1736 by the extinction of the family of the Sophis, and the elevation of Nadir, surnamed Thamas-Khouli-Khan, to the imperial throne. This ferocious, but able and fortunate prince, was a native of Khorasan. On the 20th of June 1747 he was killed, after a reign of eleven years, which was chiefly signalised by the rapid conquest of Indostan.

Dismemberment of Persia.

This was the commencement of a period entirely new, by which the modern geographical division of the country was fixed. The weakness of Nadir-Shah's successors, and the dreadful war which devastated western Persia, gave to the Afghans an opportunity of consolidating a new empire, which embraced the whole of eastern Persia, and of which the city of Kanbul is the capital.

Western Persia.

Western Persia enjoyed some repose under the government of Kerim-Khan, who did not assume the title of Shah, contenting himself with that of *vekil* or regent. This good prince had served under Nadir, with whom he was a particular favourite. When the tyrant died he was at Shiraz.

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He took on him the reins of government, and was supported by the inhabitants of that city, who were charmed by his beneficence, and placed unbounded confidence in his justice. In return for this attachment Kerim embellished their city with beautiful palaces, mosques, and elegant gardens; he repaired the high roads, and rebuilt the caravanseras. His reign was not soiled by any act of cruelty. His charity to the poor, and the efforts which he made for the re-establishment of trade, met with universal praise. He died about the year 1779, after a reign of sixteen years.

The death of Kerim was followed by new disturbances and misfortunes, as his brothers attempted to take possession of the sovereignty to the exclusion of his children. At last, in 1784, Ali-Murat, a prince of the blood, obtained peaceful possession of the throne of Persia. In the meantime, a eunuch of the name of Aga-Mohammed took independent possession of Mazanderân. Ali Murat, in marching against this usurper, was killed by a fall from his horse. His son Jaafar succeeded to the sceptre, but he was defeated by Aga Mohammed at Yezde-Kast, and withdrew to Shiraz.

Aga Mohammed, the eunuch.

In 1792, Aga-Mohammed attacked that city, and Jaafar lost his life in an insurrection. The victor defaced the tomb of Kerim, and insulted his ashes. The heroic valour of Louthf-Ali, son of Jaafar, was opposed in several desperate engagements to the fortunes of the eunuch, but without success, and the latter became final master of the whole of western Persia. He named as his successor his own nephew, Baba-Khan, who, since 1796, has reigned peaceably under the name of Futté-Ali-Shah. This prince has been engaged in several wars against the Russians, and, that he might the more advantageously defend the northern provinces from that power, he established his residence at Tehrân. The provinces which in 1810 were subject to him, were Erivan, Adzerbidjan, Ghilan, Mazanderân, western Khorazan, Irak-Adjemi, Persian Koordistân, Farsistân, and Kermân. The Arabian sheiks on the Persian

Futte-Ali-Shah.

Gulph were tributary to him, and respectful presents were sent to him by the *ooali* or prince of Mekrân.*

Present political state.

Such has been of late the state of Persia. It had ceased to be customary to crown the sovereigns. The anarchy was so habitual, that the only recognizance of majesty was to proclaim every morning the name of the khan who reigned for the day. But Futté-Ali bears the dignified title of Shah or king. This prince, firm and severe, appears to have delivered the people and the government from the arbitrary authority and the exactions of numerous khans. The title of khan, derived from the Tartars, corresponds to the denomination of *mirza* among the Persians, which is now given to gentlemen in general. The khans are sometimes governors of provinces, sometimes only proprietors of small districts, and claim a hereditary right of succession, although the sovereign has it in his power to punish them with confiscation or with death. The great khans are sometimes called *beglerbegs*, and in time of war *sirdars* or generals. Those who have the command of towns are generally denominated *darogas* or governors.

Futteh-Ali-Shah can bring into the field 100,000 men, and the number of his subjects, though greatly reduced by recent wars, is probably from six to eight millions. The kingdom of Kabool, with its Indian provinces, possesses perhaps an equal population, but its strength is greatly impaired by intestine anarchy. On the whole, notwithstanding the bravery of the Afghan Infantry, and of the Persian cavalry, these two empires, in a state of separation, can never enjoy a high political importance.

Present boundaries.

We now proceed to our description of the country, to which the preceding historical preamble was necessary. Western Persia is bounded on the north by Georgia and the Caspian Sea, both in possession of Russia. Shirwan, though partly occupied by the Russians, has not yet been

* History of the Revolution of Persia, by Picault, 3 vols. Chardin's Travels. Historical note, by Langlès, in his 10th vol.

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formally ceded to them by Persia, nor has she even formally acknowledged the right which the Georgians have exercised in submitting to the Russian authority. The Turkish frontier has not been altered since Ali-Murat gave up the city of Bassora to the Turks. The Persian Gulph, already described in our account of Arabia, forms the southern boundary of this country; but the Persians, though situated between two seas, have never cultivated navigation.

Plateau of Persia.

The whole of Persia is a highly elevated country, as is proved by the great abundance of snow. This plateau joins that of Armenia and Asia Minor on the west, and becomes confounded with that of central Asia on the east. This is the chain of high lands which the ancients called Taurus, a general term which they applied to any thing gigantic. Taurus divided Asia into two, or rather, according to Strabo, into three parts. The first lies on the north of the mountains. The second is on the top of the Taurus, lying between the different chains of mountains of which it consists, and the third is that which is situated to the south. This mode of division is founded on an accurate observation of the leading differences of climate and of produce. But the ancients knew that the numerous chains of mountains comprehended under the general name of Taurus were "divided by many valleys and elevated plains."* They also knew that several of the mountains of Persia, after rising abruptly from the middle of the plain, gradually became flat at the summit, and presented an absolute plain.† These observations are confirmed by modern travellers. The mountains of Persia, according to M. Olivier, do not seem to form any continued chain, nor to have any leading direction. They extend without order in all directions, and are heaped one on another as if thrown together at random. Groups which seem to form the commencement of chains, are suddenly inter-

* Strabo, lib. XI, p. 358, etc.

† Curt. lib. VI. cap. 16. lib. VII. cap. 39.

rupted by smooth, extensive, and very elevated plains.* But the plateau itself on which this heap of mountains is reared, must have two declivities, one towards the Euphrates and the Persian Gulf, and the other towards the Caspian Sea.

Mountains of the north of Persia.

It is on the south side of the basin of the river Kur, that we must look for the northern continuation of Mount Taurus. The Ararat, and the chain to which it belongs, join the high mountains which separate the lake Van from the lake Oormia. These last are a part of the *Niphates* of the ancients. But to the south of the river Araxes, there is a chain of very cold mountains, the south side of which embraces Adjerbidjan, the ancient *Atropatene*. These mountains defied the arms of Alexander the Great; from their sides the Alpons go off towards the east, a belt of high limestone mountains which runs parallel to the southern shore of the Caspian Sea. In the ancient Hyrcania, the sides of these mountains are described as not only steep towards the sea, but projecting "in such a manner, that the rivers threw themselves into the sea, forming a liquid arch, under which men could pass on dry ground.†

Caspian Gates.

The "Caspian Gates," passing through this range, are mentioned by the ancients as an artificial road, twenty-eight Roman miles in length, of a width which admitted only a single chariot to pass, with high black rocks on each side, from which salt water continually trickled down, rendering the road very troublesome, while it was also infested by numerous serpents, rendering it impassable in summer.‡ This passage is near Demawend, at a distance of forty miles from Tehrân.§ According to the ancients, these Hyrcanian mountains were continued to Bactriana, where they joined those called the *Paropamisan*, the *Gaoor* of the

* Olivier, Voyage dans l'empire Ottoman, la Perse, etc. V. chap. 7.

† Strabo, lib. XI. p. 551. ‡ Pliny, lib. VI. cap. 14.

§ The author here refers to a MS. by M. T———.

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moderns. Mr. Forster in his travels says, he found no mountains between Kandahar and Herat. This only shows that the traveller went along a plateau, and neglected to extend his researches. This gentleman himself, at the same time, adds weight to our opinion, when he says, that there is a high chain of snowy mountains to the north of Tchershitz. These are the mountains of the ancient Parthiene. Mr. Foster travelled along the basin of the Furra Rood, and the Helmund, with its tributaries, and had on his left the mountains of Paropamisus, which are extensive in all dimensions, and occupied by the Eimaks, Hazaurehs, and Dooranees.*

Mountains of the south of Persia.

The southern chain enters Persia to the south of the lake Oormia. The branch of Aiagha-Tag, which goes off to the south and forms the boundaries of the kingdom, is the *Zagros* of the ancients, and always in the possession of the Koords. The first great chain which enters Persia is called Elwend. The Persian geographer, Ebn Haukal, informs us, that from the neighbourhood of Koordistan to Ispahan, the country consists entirely of mountains. He specifies, among the most noted, the Demavend, from the top of which the eye takes in a range of 200 miles, while that of Bisootoon, in the same country, was celebrated for its singular sculptures which are still in existence. The Hetzerdara, or 1000 mountains, embrace on the north and west the basin in which the city of Shiraz and the ruins of Persepolis are situated. This chain required the utmost exertion for the army of Alexander to penetrate it.

Gates of Persis.

The passage called the Gates of Susa, or of Persis, was occupied by a body of Persian troops.† Another defile led from Persia into Media, called Climax Megala, or the great stair, because the passage was cut out in the form of steps.‡ On the south side, the mountains are not far

* Forster's Travels from Bengal to Petersburgh. See the map accompanying Mr. Elphinstone's account of Caubul. Also Book XXXV. of this work.

† Arrian, lib. III. cap. 18. Diod. lib. XVII. chap. 68. Strabo, lib. XV. p. 501.

‡ Plin. lib. VI. cap. 26.

from the Persian Gulf, pass across Kermân or Carmania, and though one of their branches appears to lose itself in the desert to the east of the lake Baktigan, the principal chain seems to join that which separates Seïstân, or the country of the ancient *Drangæ*, from Mekrân, the ancient Gedrosia. A modern author calls them *Djebel-Abad*. This chain joins the mountains Sooliman, which, with the mountains of Wulli, form a long plateau, separating Persia from India. This plateau, abounding in hills, possesses great elevation even in its valleys, as may be inferred from its temperature. It joins the great central plateau of Asia.

On the whole, it must be acknowledged that, though in this outline of the mountains situated between the Caspian Sea and the Indian Ocean, we have thought proper to pay the utmost respect to the descriptions of the ancients, particularly of Strabo, new local observations are requisite before this part of physical geography can be properly understood. The Persian mountains, separately taken, appear of moderate height, yet, being covered with snow, for a great part of the year, they must be concluded to rest on a very elevated base.*

Saline and sandy deserts.

One of the distinctive characters of the plateau of Persia is its great extent of deserts, which are rather saline than sandy. They are principally five. The most distant is that of Karakum on the north of Khorasan, which is sandy. That which lies between Khorasan and Irak-Adjemi, called the Great Salt Desert, is 360 miles long, and 190 broad, and appears to join that which forms the northern part of the province of Kermân, the *Caramania Deserta* of the ancients; these, along with the deserts of Kiab and of Mekran, occupy three-tenths of the country. In the Great Salt Desert the layer of crystallized sea salt which covers the surface of the ground is in several places an inch in thickness. According to Beauchamp, it is in

* "Persarum regna, inter duo maria, Hyrcanum et Persicum, attolluntur jugis Caucasiis, utrinque per devexa laterum." Plin. lib. VI. cap. 13. Beauchamp, Journal des Sçavans, 1790, p. 730.

BOOK XX XI. this desert, not far from Kom, that the enchanted mountain Telésmé is found, from which the word talisman is derived. This arid and steep mountain appears to alter its form according to the points from which it is seen. The black moving sand with which it is covered contributes to multiply these illusory appearances. A small stream flows past it, the water of which is remarkably heavy and saline.*

Mount Talisman.

Lakes. The Persian deserts, so similar in other particulars to those of Africa, present also the same kind of lakes, but of larger size. There are more than thirty which have no outlets. That of Zereh or Durra, covers an extent of 1100 square miles, and receives the river Hindmend, or Helmund, which is upwards of 400 miles in length. This lake is the *Aria Palus* of the ancients. But it belongs more properly to eastern Persia or Afghanistan.

Among the high mountains of Adzerbidjan and of Armenia, is the great lake of Urmia, or Ooroomia, so called from the name of a town situated at its southern extremity. This lake is represented as about 47 miles long and half as broad. This lake must be the *Spauta* of Strabo, and the Capoton of the Armenian geography, at least if d'Anville is correct in making the Van lake, which is a short way to the west, the *Arsissa* of antiquity. This lake is very saline, and yields a bitter salt when evaporated, and one-third more in quantity than that obtained from the waters of the sea.† When the rivers which supply it are much swollen, the surface of this lake sometimes rises thirty feet. From the strata of shells found on the south and north, it seems to have formerly extended farther in these directions.‡ It contains no fish. The limestone mountains in its neighbourhood are remarkable, as being the country of the famous Assassins. Lake Erivan, about one hundred miles to the north of it, is about seventy miles in circumference.

Urmia.

* Beauchamp, Journal des Sçavans, 1790, p. 734.

† Strabo, lib. XI. p. 350. ‡ M. Fabvier, Journal in MS.

It has a small island in the middle, and abounds in carp and trout. It is the *Lychnites* of Ptolemy.

Rivers.

The Euphrates and the Tigris cannot now be numbered among the rivers of Persia. Such others as run into the Persian Gulf are small, and require no observations. The largest river of Khorazan, the Tedzen of the moderns, and the Ochus of the ancients, loses itself in a marshy lake, according to Wahl, but it is more probable that it passes through the marshes which it forms to communicate with the Gulf of Balkan. Among the other Persian rivers which fall into the Caspian Sea, there is only one of considerable length, the Kizil-Ozen, as the inhabitants of the country call it in the Turcoman language, the Sefydrood of the Persians, and the *Mardus* of the ancients. Its waters run in a series of cataracts, through picturesque ravines, and at its mouth it runs with great force into the sea, the surface of which is affected by it a considerable way from the shore.*

Tedzen.

The Kizil-Ozen.

Nature of the soil.

The soil of the plains is generally a strong clay. The mountains have not been examined; but they seem to consist chiefly of limestone, an observation which is confirmed by the numerous caverns mentioned by the ancients. A French traveller has recently crossed in two places the great chain of Alpon mountains, by which Ghilân and Mazanderân are encompassed, and in which the peak of Demavend rises to a height of 800 feet above the plains of Tehrân, which are at least 3200 above the level of the Caspian. All the rocks which he saw consisted of carbonate and sulphate of lime in the form of limestone, marble, and alabaster, with numerous blocks of granite lying in different places. The reefs which border the coast of Mazanderân are of granite.†

Calcareous mountains.

Modern travellers have observed in the westmost chain, the Zagrus, consisting of rocks of sandstone, limestone and granite succeeding one another in the same manner as they

* Olearius, p. 472. original ed. Hanway, Gmelin, etc.

† M. Trezel, Voyage dans le Ghilan, MS.

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generally do in our mountains in Europe.* From the description of Tournefort, we are led to believe that Ararat and the neighbouring chains contain a large quantity of slate.† It is probable that a country of such extent will present to future observers all sorts of rocks, soils, and geological appearances. If Chardin's account is true, the internal structure of the country is laid open on the surface, the mountains being the most arid and sterile in the world, consisting of dry rocks, without wood or any herbaceous plants.‡

Earthquakes.

The last-mentioned traveller infers from the vast extent of the country that it is very little subject to earthquakes. If this be the case, Ghilan and Mazanderan must be excepted, being liable to shocks of this kind both violent and frequent.§ The country round Tabriz experienced, in 1721, one of the most dreadful disasters of this kind that are mentioned in history;‖ the mountains of Irak-Adjemi, among which the Elboors is not the only volcano,¶ and finally, the southermost chains of Farsistan and Laristan, where recent examples of earthquakes have occurred.**

Climate and temperature.

"My father's empire," said the younger Cyrus *to* Xenophon, "is so large, that people perish with cold at the one extremity, while they are suffocated with heat at the other." This description still applies to Persia. It has three leading distinctions of climate. The shores of the Caspian Sea, being about sixty feet lower than those of the ocean, experience in summer stronger and more lasting heats than those of the West Indies.†† The winter in that quarter is very mild, from the temperate winds which come from the surface of the Caspian. But in both seasons an excessive humidity prevails. Steel speedily

On the Caspian shores.

* Olivier, V. p. 8, 9, 202. † Schiste cornéen. ‡ Chardin, III. 288. etc.
§ Lerch, Magasin Géogr. de Busching, III. 8-38. Herbert, Voyage, p. 208.
‖ Wahl, I. 937.
¶ Olivier, V. 126.
** Niebuhr's Travels, II. 169. (in German.)
†† Olivier, V. 223.

rusts, and the inhabitants have a feverish paleness of complexion. The central plateau presents the second climate. Surrounded with mountains, on many of which the snow lies the whole year, this region, from Kandahar to Ispahan, experiences by turns excessively hot summers, and equally rigorous winters. From March till May strong winds are frequent; but from May till September the air is serene, and refreshed by a night breeze. Some have represented the clearness of the sky in the night to be such, that a book might be read by star light. From September to November high winds again prevail; the air is extremely dry; thunder and lightning are rare; a rainbow is seldom seen: but in the spring the vegetation suffers much from the hail. This general character of the climate is subject to local modifications; Farsistan, particularly in the valley of Shiraz, is exempt both from excessive heats and rigorous cold; and the mountains of Koordistan and Abjerbidjan derive from their great elevation and their forests a more humid atmosphere and a more equal temperature.

On the central plateau.

Here, however, the winters are described as sometimes extremely rigorous. Travellers are often caught in snow storms, in which they inevitably perish. Many instances have occurred, in which not only solitary individuals, but whole companies and caravans have been overwhelmed. Sir Robert Ker Porter, while describing these scenes, mentions two circumstances relative to the dispositions of the inhabitants, which we shall take the opportunity of stating in their present connexion; both being strange instances of inattention to the precautions dictated by personal feeling and common prudence, as well as humanity. The one is, that few of them of either sex put on additional clothing, though many of them, both old and young, go with the breast entirely bare; a neglect which, in some measure, accounts for the most melancholy catastrophes, in consequence of an accidental exposure under a degree of frost from which a

Severity of the winters.

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Cossack, covered with his cloak or boorka, or a Russian under his shaab, would hardly feel inconvenience. Scarcely a day passes in winter without one or two persons being found frozen to death in the neighbourhood of the towns. The other circumstance is, the rigid execution of the general regulation about the closing of the gates, to the loss of numerous lives. The gates of all towns and cities of Persia are shut a little after sunset, and re-opened at sunrise; and many who, from carelessness or unavoidable delay, arrive later at the gate, perish in the cold of the night. Hence, during the inclement season, in the north-west provinces, a terrible scene of death often unfolds itself close to the threshold at the opening of the gates; old and young, children and animals, lying in one lifeless heap.

On the shores of the Persian Gulf.

The face of nature suffers a complete change as we descend from the central plateau to the shores of the Persian Gulf. Here the Samiel or burning wind sometimes destroys the imprudent traveller. Strabo tell us that the inhabitants of Susa durst not go from home in the middle of the day, and that those who were rash enough to expose themselves to the violent heats often fell down dead in the street.*

Vegetation in the southern mountains.

In western Persia, or the present Persian kingdom, three regions are deserving of notice; the southern mountains, the plateau, and the northern mountains. Although Farsistan, or Persia properly so called, seems to have lost the forests with which all its mountains were formerly covered, there are still in the valley of Shiraz delightful walks, shadowed by oriental planes, medlar trees, weeping willows, and poplars of extraordinary size.† In the midst of these fine trees many plants remarkable for beauty and for fragrance are lavished by the hand of nature: such as blue and scarlet anemonies, jessamines, hypericums, tulips, and ranunculi. Olivier gathered in that country several plants

* Strabo, lib. XV. p. 503.

† Franklin's Travels in Persia, See Langles' Pocket Collection of Travels.

formerly unknown to the botanist. He found on the Elboors the *Chrysanthemum prœaltum*, and the *Nepeta longiflora*. One plant, then new, is since called from his name, *Olivie-ra decumbens*. It is of the umbellate order, and smells like thyme.

4. In the central plains.

The elevated plains of central Persia are covered with those species which affect a saline soil; among which is the *Statice Tartarica*. But some of the open plains, not yet inundated by sand, still present fertile pastures, where, in former times, the horses fed which were appropriated to draw the chariot of the great king.

5. On the shores of the Caspian.

Towards the shores of the Caspian Sea we find a greater vigour in the growth of the forests. The long lying of the snow, and a very protracted spring, are favourable to vegetation. The atmosphere, warm and moist, permits the sugar cane to grow, and even to produce tolerable sugar. Travellers forcing their way by climbing through thickets of sweet briars and honeysuckles, on the varied and picturesque sides of the hills, find themselves surrounded with accacias, oaks, lindens, and chesnut trees. Above they see the summits crowned with cedars, cypresses, and pines of various descriptions.* The sumach, so useful from its astringent virtue in the arts of dyeing and tanning, grows there in abundance. The flowering or mannah-ash, (*Fraxinus ornus,*) is equally common. Ghilan abounds so much in boxwood that camels cannot be employed in that country. The leaves of this tree are to that animal poisonous, and it has no instinct leading it to avoid them. An old observer, Aristobulus, quoted by Strabo, states that the ancient Hyrcania, on the south-east side of the Caspian Sea, though rich in oaks and many other trees, produced no pines.

Agriculture.

But Persia, whose varied soil affords so much pleasure to the botanist and the painter, has but a small extent of arable land. In the central and southern provinces a hard dry clay succeeds to barren rocks. This soil requires artificial irrigations. Unfortunately the canals subservient

* Olivier, Voyage, V. p. 217, *sqq.*

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to this purpose have been destroyed in the frequent civil wars in order to cut off the supply of water from an enemy. Scarcely a twentieth part of the country is at this day in cultivation. The most common grain in Persia is wheat, the quality of which is excellent. Rice, however, is regarded by the inhabitants as the most delicious food. It grows mostly in the north, where the provinces are well watered. Barley and millet are also sown, but oats very rarely. The Armenians sow a little rye. The ploughs, small and drawn by lean oxen, merely scratch the surface. The hopes of the farmer are in some seasons sadly disappointed, and general famine produced by the want of rain. This was the case in the summer of the year 1781 in the province of Irak-Adjemi and the neighbourhood. The inhabitants then suffered under the consequences of two successive years of this description. Dogs, cats, mules, and horses, were devoured by the starving natives. An unhappy pair at Kashan killed two of their female infants for food; several similar instances occurred. Thousands in attempting to fly to other places where the famine might be less severe, became exhausted by the way, so that the roads were covered with the dying and the dead. Such scenes were alleviated, but not prevented, by distinguished acts of munificence which were extended on that occasion to the people by the governor and prince Abba Mirza.* Agriculture is in some instances hampered by certain impolitic regulations. Land under lease from the crown pays rent according to its produce. Sentinels are placed on the ground not merely to preserve the harvest from the depredations of strangers, but more particularly to prevent the tenant from stealing his own property, a manœuvre sometimes adopted to lessen the payment of rent by offering an excuse of a robbery having been committed on the produce.† This regulation must discourage the expenditure of capital and labour in agricultural improvements.

Famines.

* Porter's Travels, &c. vol. I. p. 386. † Ibidem, p. 381.

Fruit trees.

Persia is in some measure consoled for these disadvantages by the excellence of her fruits. There are twenty sorts of melons; the finest grows in Khorasan. In Persia this fruit is extremely succulent, and contributes greatly to health. They are sometimes so large that two or three are a full load for a man. The most esteemed fruits of Europe are believed to have been brought originally from Persia, as the fig, the pomegranate, the mulberry, the almond, the peach, and the apricot. The oranges are of enormous size, and are found in places sheltered by the mountains. The heat reflected from the sand is particularly favourable to the cultivation of the lemon. The vine here displays all its riches, but it is only cultivated by the Guebres, or worshippers of fire. There are among other varieties of the vine three particularly excellent. That of Shiraz, reputed to be the best, is kept for the use of the sovereign and the grandees of the court. That of Yezd is very delicate, and is transported to Laar and Ormus. That of Ispahan is distinguished for its delicious sweetness.*

Useful plants.

Among the vegetable tribes that are useful in the arts, Persia produces linen, hemp, tobacco, sesamum, which gives an oil, cotton, saffron, turpentine, mastic, various gums, and gall nuts. Mazanderân is the only province from which olive oil is obtained, although the wild olive grows in all moist situations. Strabo informs us that the attempts made to introduce the olive into Media were unsuccessful.

It is said that Persia produces annually 20,000 balls of silk, each weighing 216 lbs. Only about 1000 of these are used in the country. The rest is sold in Turkey, India, and Russia. Opium, manna, and rhubarb are among the exports. The opium poppy, or *Papaver somniferum*, is cultivated in large quantities.

Domestic animals.

The Persian soldiers use Tartar horses, on one of which Kherim-Khan once travelled 332 miles in fifty-eight hours;

* Olivier, V. 281, &c. Chardin, VIII. 158. III. 337, and a note by Langlès.

BOOK XXXI.

more than five miles per hour, in one uninterrupted journey. The horses of Persia are esteemed the finest and handsomest of any in the east, although, in fleetness, inferior to the Arabian. They are higher than those of England, with a small head, delicate limbs, and a well proportioned body. They are gentle, hard-working, lively, and swift. The mules are greatly in request. The ass resembles that of Europe, but an excellent breed has been introduced from Arabia. It is neat, vivacious, and docile, with soft hair, carrying the head high. The camel is very common. The horned cattle are similar to those of Europe. The sheep drag behind them a tail of 30 lbs. weight, which is flat and heart-shaped, becoming widest at the extremity. This appendage is formed of fat, and affords good eating. Numerous flocks of them are maintained on the pastures of Erivan. Pigs are but seldom seen in Persia, being proscribed both among Jews and Mahometans, though recommended for the salubrity of their flesh by Hippocrates.

Wild quadrupeds.

Some of the forests contain deer and antelopes. Hares breed in great numbers in the uncultivated lands. In the shady woods, the wild boar. the bear, the lion, and according to some, the smaller kind of tiger lurk. According to M. Olivier, there is in the neighbourhood of the Euphrates, a species of lion without a mane, which was known to the ancients. It is undoubtedly to this gentle creature that the accounts of historians refer when they tell us, that the Persians had long been in the practice of taming animals of prey, so as even to hunt with lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, and ounces. Lucretius says that the Parthians had attempted, without success, to employ lions along with their armies against the enemy.

The Caspian cat (the *Felix chaus* of Gmelin,) the Aha, or *Cervus pygargus*, and other animals live in the deserts and the forests adjoining to the Caspian Sea. There is a distinct species of squirrel called the Persian. The Persian boar is an animal of great ferocity. The wild ass

lives in the deserts of the centre; the hyena and jackal in the provinces of the south. The Caspian Sea produces the sturgeon in great abundance, and a delicious sort of carp. The pigeon and partridge furnish excellent food, which the inhabitants share with the birds of prey, the eagle, the vulture, and the falcon, animals which number among the native species of the wild mountains.

Birds.

BOOK XXXII.

PERSIA CONTINUED.

Topographic details on the Provinces and Cities.

BOOK XXXII. HAVING taken a view of Persia as a whole, we shall now turn our attention to its chief towns, and other objects of special geography, taking for our point of departure the former capital Ispahan, beginning with the central and north-west provinces, and proceeding to those of the south-east and east.

Province of Irak Adjemi. The vast province of Irak-Adjemi, which nearly corresponds to the Great Media of the ancients, takes its name from the first founder of the Persian monarchy; the Djemshid of the Orientalists, and the Achæmenes of the Greeks. If *shid* and *menes* are considered as terminations, these two words may be reduced to one root, *Adjem* or *Achem*. With the Arabians *Irak* signifies Babylonia, and *Adjemi* is their name for the Persians. The name of the province, therefore, means Persian Babylonia.* This province occupies the greater part of the central plateau of Persia, and the description already given of this plateau is particularly applicable to it.

Ispahan. On its southern boundary we find the remains of Ispahan, that immense city, to which Chardin gives thirty-three miles of circumference, and which, when he visited it, contained from 6 to 700,000 inhabitants. This superb

* Wahl, Asien, I. 209, 217.

capital, which the Persians considered as one half of the world, has now left a mere shadow of its former grandeur. The large spaces which served as pleasure grounds to the avenues, are now converted into common gardens. We may travel for three hours on country roads, which were formerly streets leading to the centre of the city. Still, however, according to the account of M. Olivier, the bazars* constructed by Sha-Abbas, which were covered in with vaults, and lighted by numerous domes, are of prodigious extent, and proclaim the former magnificence of the city. Sir R. K. Porter says he travelled under its massy arches considerably more than a mile, to where they terminate at the northern angle of the Royal Square, and that, after crossing the square, the bazar is continued at the opposite angle.

Great square.

This vast square, called the Maidan Shah, one of the most extensive in the world, was formerly one of the chief ornaments of Ispahan; enriched with shops, where every commodity of luxury and splendid manufacture was exposed. Here also the troops were exercised, and the nobility exhibited their Asiatic tournaments before their king. In the centre of each side of this immense area, stands some edifice, remarkable for grandeur or for character. In the north-west is the great gate of entrance to the bazar, on which, in former times, stood the celebrated clock of Ispahan. The south-eastern side shows the Meshed-Shah, a superb mosque, built by Shah-Abbas, and dedicated to Mehedi, one of the twelve Imâns. On the north-east is the mosque of Looft Ullah; and on the south-west the Ali Kapi, or gate of Ali, forms a majestic parallel to the bazar porch on the opposite side. The length of the square is about 2000 feet, and its breadth 700. Each face presents a double range of arches, the one over the other; the longest range consisting of eighty-six, and the shortest of thirty. At a few paces from these arcades there is a constant supply of water, running through a canal of

* Olivier, Voyage, etc. V. p. 176.

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black marble, and opening into a variety of basins of the same substance, which are constantly full, and rendered more cool and refreshing by a close shade of elegant trees. The Sefi, or Ali Kapi gate, is described as one of the most perfect pieces of brick work to be found in the Persian empire. Over the great entrance it rises into several stories, and the flights of steps which lead to them are formed of the most beautiful variegated porcelain. The roof of the large chamber over the gate is sumptuously gilt and carved, and supported by eighteen lofty octagonal pillars, once richly emblazoned in gold but now faded. It is open on all sides but one. On the side nearest the balustrade facing the square, a round platform marks the spot on which Shah Abbas used to sit, and from whence he reviewed his chivalry, galloping and skirmishing beneath, or witnessed the combats of wild animals. The freshness of all the buildings is particularly striking to a European, or the inhabitant of any comparatively humid country, in which the atmosphere cherishes a vegetation of mosses, lichens, and other cryptogamous plants, which we particularly associate in our minds with the spectacle of decay. Above this there is a numerous range of small rooms, some of them evidently appropriated to purposes of carousal. From the roof of the building an extensive view of the city is obtained. In former times this was undoubtedly splendid, but at present, with the exception of the palaces in the gardens, the whole mass below is one mouldering succession of ruinous houses, mosques, and shapeless structures, which had formerly been the mansions of the nobility, broken by groupes or lines of various tall trees which once made part of the gardens of the houses now in ruins. Ispahan, though two-thirds of it are in ruins, contains more than 200,000 inhabitants.* There all the mechanical arts are executed in the best style. In the south part of the city is to be *seen* the famous tract called Shaherbag, which bears a great re-

Avenue of Shaherbag.

* According to M. T——, there are 20,000 houses.

semblance to Versailles. It consists of a series of gardens, inclosed within four majestic walls: each garden has a separate palace adapted to the seasons, or to the changing humour of the royal planter, who called them Hesht Beheste, or the "Eight Paradises." The prevailing plan of them all is that of long parallel walks, shaded by even rows of tall umbrageous planes, the celebrated chenar trees, of which the Persians are extremely fond, and which grow here in perfection. These are interspersed with a variety of fruit trees, and all kinds of flowering shrubs. Canals flow down the avenues in straight lines, and generally terminate in a large marble basin, ornamented with sparkling fountains of square or octagon shapes. The great number of avenues and canals, and the numbers of rills which are seen from any one point, have an uncommonly magnificent effect, and the different palaces belonging to the eight paradises are descried at different openings, glittering like so many gay pavilions. The traveller now mentioned, however, on drawing nearer, was less pleased with the architectural taste displayed in these structures. He found them gorgeous, but heavy and discordant, though loaded with every species of external ornament, in gilding, carving, painting, and inlaid mirror-glass. This was particularly the case with the Shehel Setoon, or Palace of Forty Pillars, the favourite residence of the latter Sophi kings. The exhaustless profusion of its splendid materials reflecting their own golden or crystal lights on each other, along with all the variegated colours of the garden, gave the appearance of an entire surface formed of polished silver and mother-of-pearl set with precious stones, a scene well fitted for an eastern poet's dream, or some magic vision in the tales of an Arabian night. The front is entirely open to the garden, and it is sustained by a double range of columns, upwards of forty feet high, each column shooting up from the united backs of four lions of white marble, and the shafts covered with arabesque patterns, and foliages in looking-glass, gilding and painting; some twisting spirally, others winding in golden wreaths, or running into lo-

Palace of Forty Pillars.

BOOK XXXII.

zenges, stars, connecting circles, and many intricacies of fancy and ingenious workmanship. The ceiling is equally ornamented, particularly with the figures of all sorts of animals, from insects to the large quadrupeds. At some distance within the front is the entrance to a vast interior saloon, in which all the caprice and cost of eastern magnificence are incredibly lavished. The floors of both apartments are covered with the richest carpets of the age of Shah-Abbas, but as fresh as if just laid down, a proof of the excellence of the dye, though some ascribe this and all similar phenomena, without any meaning, to the purity of the climate. So far as this cause is concerned, the only property of the atmosphere is the absence of dampness. A door in one angle of this saloon, opens into a spacious and lofty banqueting hall, the sides of which are hung with pictures, mostly descriptive of convivial scenes, similar representations being also emblazoned on the doors and pannels of the room near the floor. Its lower range is spotted with little recesses taking the shapes of bottles, flaggons, and other vessels indispensible in those days at a Persian feast, though of a character equally different from the abstemiousness that marked the board of the great Cyrus, and from the temperance which at the present moment presides at the Persian court. Sir R. K. Porter gives an interesting account of the subjects and execution of six large pictures, four of which represent royal entertainments given to different ambassadors in the reign of Shah-Abbas, and two are battle pieces; these are, in general, ill-imagined in point of taste, but executed with great nicety and observation. The hall of audience exhibits a profusion of very recent paintings, among which are several of the king, but wretched likenesses, and altogether they betray a decline of this fine art in Persia, while a similar comparison of the ornamented work shows that considerable progress in that department has been made. The river Zenderood, which divides the superb promenade in two, has a beautiful bridge of hewn stone and brick, composed of thirty-six arches, with a covered gal-

lery, in the form of a terrace on each side, commanding a delightful view of the surrounding gardens, and the suburb of Julpha, situated on the margin of the river, though now in ruins. A little lower is another bridge built by Shah-Abbas, with wider galleries, and a hexagonal circuit of buildings in the centre. Under the arches, the bottom of the river is so paved as to make the water fall in the form of a cascade, which is in full view of a fine palace built directly opposite, and surrounded with beautiful gardens. That these bridges might have a sufficient river flowing beneath them, Shah Abbas introduced into the bed of the Zenderood, another river, from a distance of eight miles, by cutting a passage through some mountains at a great expense. Chardin describes the size of the river as equalling in spring that of the Seine at Paris in winter.*

Suburb of Julpha.

The suburb of Julpha, which we have mentioned, also owes its origin to Shah-Abbas, who founded it for a body of Armenians whom he transplanted from their own country. The inhabitants of the opulent town of Julpha on the Araxes, having particularly conciliated his favour, by expelling their Turkish garrison at the sight of his troops, and opening their gates to receive him, he treated them as friends, but would not leave such valuable subjects behind so near the frontier, where they might at a future period fall into the hands of the enemy. He demolished the town, brought the inhabitants to Persia, and stationed them in this great suburb, naming it Julpha, and gave them here as well as in other parts of his dominions, full toleration for the publicity of their religious institutions, and some valuable privileges as merchants. This occurred about the year 1603, and for more than a century the colony continued to prosper. To it Ispahan owed its great commercial character and its wealth. But in the Afghan invasion, the ill-advised monarch Shah Houssein deprived the inhabitants of Julpha of their arms, and it was abandoned to become the first prey in the bloody and rapacious hands of the

* Chardin. Olivier, l. c. Memoires historiques, politiques et geographiques des Voyages de Ferriere-Sauvebœuf, II. p. 28.

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Afghans. The noblest and best fell in front of these assaults, and few survived to maintain the good old character of the Armenian merchants. Their transactions are now only characterised by low cunning. Their trade and gains, and every circumstance that confers respectability, have been miserably reduced, and their habits have become disgustingly vicious, even the women being remarked for intemperance. A strange irregularity has obtained a sort of sanction among them from established usage, that of temporary marriages. The mothers bargain with strangers for their daughters in this species of connection. The young women are said to be in every respect faithful to their lords during the whole term of agreement; when this expires, they are considered as free but not degraded, and the pecuniary consideration which they have obtained, operates as a recommendation to a more permanent matrimonial alliance with their own countrymen. Not countenanced by Christianity, these arrangements are of course viewed with marked reprobation by consistent professors of that religion, and it is alleged that the want of principle thus betrayed lowers their general character even among the Mahometans, with whom concubinage is legitimate. The degree of neglect to which the children procreated by connections of this description are subjected is justly viewed as aggravating their immorality.*

Revival of Ispahan.

At present, Ispahan is in some degree recovering from its state of abject decay. Mohammed Hussein, whose talents have raised him to the place of Ameen-a-Doolah, or second minister of the king, being a native of Ispahan, has erected in it a splendid new palace, and enlarged and beautified many of the former edifices. Having, in the faithful discharge of his public duty, encouraged agriculture, and recolonized many deserted villages in the country, he has used similar means to populate the habitable streets of this city, by promoting the old manufactures, and striving to attract commerce back to its ancient channels.

* Porter's Travels in Persia.

In Ispahan, as well as in the surrounding country, the effects of his good intentions are manifested, and if security in the possession of property were permanently established, and industrious habits formed, this desolate city might regain its ancient prosperity.

Kashan. On the road from Ispahan to Tehrân, the residence of Shah-Futté-Ali, we pass by Kashan, containing 5000 houses, and a palace built by Abbas the Great. The silk brocades of this place are at present, as in former times, celebrated all over Persia. A particularly rich shawl of silk fabric is also made here, and in great request. It contains besides, a manufactory of copper vessels, which forms an article of commerce between the town and its adjacent provinces, so that Kashan is one of the most thriving places in that quarter of the empire. The town is handsome, but more infested by scorpions of the most venomous description than any other part of the country.*

Kom. After this, we come to Kom, a large town of 2000 houses, where there is a mosque, to which many devout pilgrims resort, but it is partly destroyed by an earthquake. Large sums are paid by individuals for the privilege of having their remains buried here, as it has been the burying place of many sanctified characters. But this place has, notwithstanding its sanctity, been treated with a relentless spirit of destruction even by Mahometan invaders. About a century ago, the Afghans, being of a different sect, from that of the Sonnites, gave it a blow from which it has never recovered. The water here is brackish.† Owing to its proximity to the great salt desart, the heat of the summers are insupportable. It is hemmed in by rocky mountains to the southward.

Tehrân. Tehrân has acquired considerable importance by becoming the ordinary residence of the sovereign. It consists of 7000 houses. It is not newly built, as M. Olivier tells us: in the time of Abbas the Great it was an import-

* Olivier, V. 170. † Ham-doolla, a Persian geographer, quoted by M. Langlès in his edition of Chardin, II. 450.

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abt place, and some of the last Sophis often resided in it.* During winter, it contains from 60 to 70,000 inhabitants. The houses are of clay or mud, as is the case through the whole of Persia, and the walls comprehend a large extent of ground not yet occupied. This city is of a square form, and in the middle is another space also square, surrounded with walls, and within which is the royal palace, which is a structure of great extent and highly magnificent. For a position of general surveillance, the Persian monarch could hardly have chosen a better situation, being quite central between the north-west provinces, which border on Georgia, and those to the east, which are exposed to incursions from the Turcomans and Afghans. But it is not strictly the best locality, being extremely unhealthy during summer, from the exhalations emitted by the low ground moistened by the spring torrents which pour from the adjacent heights; although the same cause by giving birth to an early verdure, contributes to the pleasantness of its general aspect. In summer, therefore, the court flies to the more temperate plains of Sultanieh, or Oujan, and the people to tents or villages among the hills.

Rey.

To the south-east of Tehrân are to be found the extensive ruins of Rey, the ancient *Rhagæ* or *Rhagianæ*, known for a short period under the name of Arsacia,† 2000 stadia to the east of Hamadan, the ancient Ecbatana, and 500 from the Pylæ Caspiæ. Going north-west from Tehrân, we come to the cities of Casbin or Kasooin, and Sultanieh. This last, situated in a fine valley among rugged mountains, in a cold climate, has for a long time gone to utter decay.‡ In the 15th century, it was the thriving focus of the trade between India and Europe.§ Zinghan is a

Sultanieh.

Zinghan.

* Langlès, note on Tehrân, in Chardin, VIII. 166. Pietre della Valle, III. p. 435. 12mo.

† Mannert, Geographie des Grecs et Romains, V. pars I. 102, &c.

‡ Cartwright on Persia, p. 245. (Elzevir.)

§ Ruy Gonzales Clavijo.

town of some importance, twenty-four miles from Sultanieh,* containing 2000 houses. Kasbin, according to Beauchamp, who determined its longitude, contained in 1787, 10 or 12,000 souls; the number of their houses was rated at 3500. The old palace of the king is still to be seen here, but in very bad condition. It is celebrated for its manufacture of sabres. Ferriere says that it contains considerable copper manufactures, the metal being obtained from the adjacent mountains. Copper vessels of all kinds are better made here than in Turkey. There are always numerous caravans in the place, from Khorasan or Adzerbidjan, which make it an entrepôt of trade. It has been more than once nearly overwhelmed with earthquakes, so that at present little remains of its past grandeur but broken masses of domes and towers, and long lines of mouldering walls; yet the existing town has many fine edifices, and spacious gardens, producing fruits of great variety and delicacy of flavour. Kasbin.

Hamadan is, from its situation, one of the most agreeable towns in Persia. The houses are indifferently built, but being separated by gardens, which are watered by streams from the hills, they form a very agreeable whole. Here is the tomb of Avicenna.† Passing mount Elwend on the south-west of Hamadan, we come to Kermanshah, a flourishing town of 3000 houses, near which is mount Risootoon, containing a singular monument called "the throne of Rustan." It consists of two halls, shaped out of the solid rock, in the form of a portico, the one being nearly double the size of the other; the largest is from twenty to thirty feet in both dimensions, and contains a colossal equestrian statue, besides several other statues, basso-relievos which are chiefly hunting pieces, and several inscriptions, all cut out in the solid mountain.‡ Hamadan. Kermanshah.

* Various MS. Journals.

† Abdool-Kerim's Travels from India to Mecca, translated into French by Langlès, p. 97.

‡ Memoires sur diverses Antiquités de la Perse, par M. Sylvestre de Sacy, in 4to, 1793, p. 211.

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To the north of Kermanshah, and the west of Ha dan and of Sultanié, we have a very mountainous co try, where the grass and the foliage are never scorched the summer heats; a country inhabited by the indepe ent Koords, who are always ready to move their tents their flocks out of the reach of any controlling pov This country is called Al-Djebal, or Prussian Koordis No frequented road passes through it. The snow rem on the mountains till August.* The valleys are filled v agreeable woods, orchards, cultivated fields, and pastu which are always verdant. The villages are gener built on the tops of hills, and the burying grounds in sim situations. The Soonnite is here the prevalent form of lâmism. Senney, the chief town, and containing 3000 hou is surrounded by a very rich cultivation. The whole co try is capable of furnishing 20,000 horsemen. Some the tribes are entirely independent, as the Mekris, v have a capital called Shash-Poola.

Persian Koordistan.

Senney.

Adzerbidjan.

We are better acquainted with Adzerbidjan, the Adj badjan of the Zenda Vesta, and the Atropatena of the cients. These names signify "the Country of Fir either from the worship of that element having taken origin in this country, or from the volcanic eruptions which it is subject. It is hilly, rugged, and cold; possesses valleys which are very fertile in fruit and madder. Here is Tebriz, or Tauris, a considerable to of 7000 houses. The bazars and other public buildin are very spacious; and the great square is said to capable of containing 30,000 men drawn up in bat array. Tauris was the residence of the Persian m narchs for several centuries. It still possesses a gr silk trade. The continual resort of Turks, Georgians, a Koords, gives it an appearance of great populousness. large quantity of shagreen skin is prepared here, an ar ticle much used in Persia for shoes. This town is remar able for its fine mosques faced with glazed bricks, and o

Tebriz or Tauris.

* MS. Journal of M. Fabvier.

mented with stones of alabaster, a rock common in the neighbourhood.

At present Tabriz is well known, from being the capital of the province of Adzerbidjan, and the principal residence of the heir-apparent to the Persian crown Abbas Mirza, who is governor of the province. In distant ages this city rivalled Ecbatana. It has often been the victim of the contentions of kings, and has suffered in repeated wars from Turks, Persians, and Tartars. But its most destructive enemies have been two fatal earthquakes which occurred in the last century, in the years 1727 and 1787, and laid it in ruins. During these dreadful catastrophes upwards of 100,000 of the inhabitants perished. Yet a new city has risen over the ruins, and at present enjoys every prospect of increasing prosperity. It has been refortified by the prince, and surrounded with a thick wall, protected by bastions and towers, with the addition of a very deep dry ditch. Out of 250 mosques mentioned by Chardin, the ruins of only three are visible. The most considerable is that of Ali-Shah, erected nearly 600 years ago by Ali-Koja, and still presenting lofty arches, and the mouldering vaulted work of splendid domes; the whole of the building within and without has been cased with lacquered tiles of porcelain, adjusted into intricate and elaborate figures, with an ingenuity and taste which would honour the most accomplished artists of any age. The colours of those decorations are green, dark, and light-blue, interspersed with Arabic sentences in gilt letters; and a broad band of similar inscriptions, formed in white on this beautifully varied ground, and interwoven with flowers in green and gold, winds round the entire extent of the building.* This fine ruin is within the limits of the new city, together with the remains of the citadel. Here part of the old palace, with its attendant mosque, may also be traced, executed in brick work, and put together with the nicest care. This city has often changed with respect to its relative importance, and the numbers of its

Its misfortunes.

* Porter's Travels in Persia, vol. I.

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houses and inhabitants, from the effects of war, massacr and forcible emigration.

The south-west part of Adzerbidjan contains also the tow

Maraga. of Maraga, consisting of 3000 houses. This part is almo entirely comprehended in the basin of the lake Oormi The town of Oormia is built on the west side of the lal among steep mountains, where the winter is of nine mont duration. The north-west part of Adzerbidjan is form by the basin of the Karasou, a river which runs into th

Ardebil. Arazes. It contains Ardebil, a good commercial town 2500 houses. Excellent fruits are gathered in the neigl bourhood, and agriculture is kept up by numerous cana for irrigation.

Persian Armenia. Persian Armenia or Erivan is a large valley, forming pa of the basin of the Araxes, a river which in that part of i course still preserves its impetuous character, and, as de cribed by the poets, appears to hate bridges.* The princ pal bridge, that of Djoolfa, has often been carried awa

Erivan lake. The lake of Erivan, enclosed in a basin of its own, has n outlet. Its waters are clear, and abound in fish. In thi country, which is filled with highly picturesque situations the climate is healthy, though somewhat foggy; a lon and severe winter produces many falls of snow; the sum mer is cold.† For several months the Armenian peasantr cover their vines with earth. They maintain that this i the place where the vine was first cultivated by Noah, an the quality of the wine which it affords ranks very high

City. The capital of Persian Armenia is Erivan. It is surround ed by an earthen wall. It has been in the hands of th Persians since 1635, when it was included among the con quest of Nadir-Shah. It is the seat of residence of th Persian governor, who has the title of Sirdar, or general and holds his office by a sort of military tenure; paying n tribute, but furnishing a certain number of troops during war. Its natural situation is remarkably beautiful. Th

* Pontem indignatus Araxes, *Virg.* L'Araxe gemissant sous un pont qu l'outrage, *Louis Racine.*

† Philipp. à S. Trinit. p. 73. Tournefort, &c.

river Zengay,* which passes the city on its way to join the Araxes, and is itself previously augmented by numerous streams in the neighbourhood of this city, contributes greatly to beautify and enliven it; while the assemblage of mountain and vale through which it flows can hardly be excelled. Another smaller river, called the Querkboolak, is expended in supplying water for the necessities of the city. But Erivan has no longer the aspect of the capital of a large province, having been the prey of sanguinary invasions. Its appearance is ruinous, with the exception of the fortress. The number of its inhabitants is supposed not to exceed 15,000. A short way to the south-west is the celebrated Armenian monastery of Eitch-May-Adsen, or "the three churches," and mount Ararat, which is a sort of frontier to the territories of Persia and Turkey. The monastery has very extensive buildings, and is much resorted to by the Armenian pilgrims. Here the patriarch leads a life of as great austerity as the other monks. In the Armenian church the fasts are observed with a frequency and a rigour proportioned to the ecclesiastical dignity of individuals. Nactchitshevan, or Nakshivan, was formerly the second town in this province, but it has gone to decay, and its place has been occupied by Khoy, a town consisting of 1100 houses. At this place the present governor of the province, Abbas Mirza spends a short time every summer in hawking and hunting; and it shares with Tabriz the views which this prince entertains of general improvement. It is more pleasantly situated than that capital, and possesses a safer foundation, though not lying so central for all the objects of the governor.

Khoy.

Many of the oriental, and several Christian authors, regard Persian Armenia as the first cradle of the human race. Here, they tell us, was the vale of Eden, the happy abode of our first parents. Here Noah's ark, after

Digression on the terrestrial paradise.

* Porter describes these two rivers as issuing from lake Erivan, while Mr. Macdonald Kinneir, with M. Malte Brun, represents the lake as having no outlet. Tr.

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having floated over a shoreless ocean, rested on the summi of Ararat. But these two ideas have no natural connexio with one another. There is no necessity for the scen of our creation having been the same spot which wa afterwards the quarter where the survivors of the floo were landed, and from which they were again to people th earth. But this plain distinction seems to have been ove looked, and the Euphrates has always been fixed on as on of the four rivers of paradise, respecting which no doul could be entertained.* Deluc held that the terrestrial par dise was situated on an antediluvian continent, which th flood destroyed, and converted into a part of the ocean and that the names Frat, or Euphrates, and Hiddekel, o Tigris, were given to those of paradise, the remembranc of which had been transmitted to posterity. This hypo thesis has been thought most in unison with the books o Moses considered as minute historical records. Some o the German literati, less scrupulous on this point tha M. Deluc, look for the terrestrial paradise on the presen continent. They consider the geography of the book o Genesis, like the astronomy of the Scriptures, as no forming an article of religious faith, but merely a poetic exposition of ideas originating with man, and of tradition transmitted in that wandering tribe from which the Israe ites were sprung. Criticism thus unshackled furnish explanations which may have some plausibility, bu must be altogether uncertain. Some make an Ede of the whole of Persia as the country first civilize in contradistinction to the land of Nod or of wretch edness, the country of the wandering tribes, and t which Cain, stained with his brother's blood, was drive This peopled world was watered by four rivers; the *Gih* or Oxus, the Araxes, called also Phasis or *Phison*, th *Frat* or Euphrates, and the *Hiddekel* or the Tigris.† Th enchanted garden, the habitation of the first man, wa designated by the Persian and Chaldean term *Pardè*

New hypotheses.

* Dictionaries of Calmet and of Bruyzen la Martinière, on the words Ede and Paradise. Reland, Dissert. de Situ Paradisi.

† Wahl, Asien, I. 851, *sqq.*

whence the Greek *Paradisos*, which was applied to all the royal parks of Persia, and is for that reason given to many places not included in Persia properly so called.* Eden was, on this hypothesis, in some canton of Persia. Others of the learned have understood by Eden, the whole of the east that was known to the first men, of whom traditions were collected in the form of obscure fragments by the Hebrew writers. Eden thus comprehended the basin of the Euphrates, the Indus, named Hind-Dekel, the Ganges or Gihon, and Irabatty, called by Ptolemy Besynga, a name considered as allied to Phison. Admitting bold hypotheses of this nature, some have demonstrated that paradise was nothing else than the smiling valley of Cashmire.† These various researches afford but dubious and vague conjectures, and are perhaps worse than idle. We derive little more satisfaction from those which have been formed on Noah's ark. If, with M. Deluc, we admit the universality of the deluge as the effect of a sinking of the earth, and conceive the old continent to have occupied a part of the present ocean, there is nothing absurd in conceiving Mount Ararat to be the resting place of the ark. Armenia and Koordistan might, at that remote epoch, form a large island, which, being nearer to the level of the sea than it now is, enjoyed a milder temperature. This circumstance, together with its central situation rendering it a convenient source for the diffusion of inhabitants over the rest of the continent, might be urged in favour of the hypothesis; but it is only a hypothesis. Profane history, civil as well as physical, does not go farther back than an epoch in which families of human beings, spread, like the animals and the plants, over the whole surface of the earth, presented no irrefragable evidence of their common origin.

* Paradisus, a town of Syria. (Pliny V. 23. Strabo XVI.)—a river of Cilicia, (Plin. V. 27.)—a river of Euphratic Syria, (Mart. Capella, IX. 5.)

† Buttman's Primitive Geography of the East, (in German.) The same author on the Mythes, contained in the Primitive History of Moses, in the Berliner Monathschrift, 1804.

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Leaving these discussions as equally vain with th curiosity of those who search Mount Ararat for the wrec of Noah's ark, we resume the sober details of our descri tion. In a preceding book we described the provinces Shirwan, Daghestan, and Georgia, in the region of Cauc sus; countries which once belonged to Persia, but now Russia. We proceed to that portion of Persia which li along the Caspian Sea.

Ghilan.

To the east of Armenia and of Adzerbidjan, and to t south of Shirwan, lies the fertile province of Ghila pleasing to the eye, but unhealthy. Its wooded mou tains, and numerous rice fields, render the air humi M. Trezel, who has just returned from it, informs us, th in crossing the forests with which it is filled, he was su denly seized with headach and sickness, which he cou only attribute to the powerful exhalations emitted b

Climate.

plants, trees, and stagnant waters.* The extreme hum dity of the atmosphere rusts the insides of watches, thoug kept with the utmost care. The inhabitants, however, r mark that the women, the mules, and the poultry enjoy ver good health. The most unhealthy months of the year a June, July, and August. In October, November, an December, there is generally heavy rain. In 1741 ther was such a prodigious fall of snow that the inhabitant were deprived of all communication, except by the roofs o their houses. The spring lasts several months. Th meadows and the woods are at all times variegated wit flowers. The soil being exceedingly fertile, produce

Productions.

hemp, hops, and fruits of all kinds, without culture. Or anges, lemons, peaches, and pomegranates, are in grea abundance. Here, as on the banks of the Mississippi, th convolvuli, with their luxurious but noxious vegetation suppress the growth of the oaks, the ashes, and the beeches Natural vines also grow on the mountains, and attac themselves to the trees; but, for want of culture, the grape make indifferent wine, unless mixed with others. Th

* MS. Journal. He travelled in 1806 and 1807 in Ghilan and Mazanderán

chief produce of the country is silk.* The Ghilanians have blue eyes, white hair, a small figure, delicate features, and a good shape. At an early age the children are remarkably pretty, but the male part become much less so as they grow up. The men are lean, uncleanly in their habits, and of an unsteady character. Their language is quite peculiar, possessing no affinity with the Arabic or the Persian. The population is reckoned at 50,000 families. Inhabitants.

Towns. Reshd, the capital of Ghilan, is about five or six miles from the sea, in the best silk canton. According to M. Trezel, it may consist of 3000 houses, and contains 2000 silk manufactures. We may also mention Einselly, a sea-port frequented by the Russian vessels from Astracan.

Part of Ghilan called Dylem. We have already mentioned the high limestone mountains which separate both Ghilan and Mazanderân from the rest of Persia. The valleys which this chain of mountains contains are sheltered from the winds which blow from the Caspian; have a dry atmosphere, a steady temperature, and a more regular distinction of seasons than the maritime parts of Ghilan.† This chain is crossed by two defiles, the one leading from Ardebil to Astara, the other from Casbin, by Roobar, to Reshd. Another from Langkerân between the mountains and the sea connects Ghilan and Shirvan. This mountainous part of Ghilan is called Dylem, from the name of a tribe which has given sovereigns to Persia, and which Moses of Chorène mentions for the first time under the name of Delmi.‡ The name of Ghilanians, or Ghilakis, is the same with that of the ancient Gelæ. The Ambarlins, or people of the valley, occupy the district of Tenkaboon, under a khan of their own.

The Ambarlines.

Mazanderân. Mazanderân, situated on the east of Ghilan, has a great resemblance to it in its physical character. High

* Gmelin's Travels in Russia, etc. III. p. 448. (in German.) Hanway's Travels in Persia, etc. part II. chap. 40 and 41. Forster, II. 320. Langlès' French translation.

† Gmelin, IV. 196. Compare III. 366, (in German.)

‡ Wahl, Asien, I. p. 540, note.

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mountains on the south, and the Caspian Sea on the north, contain between them valleys covered with forests, and intersected by rapid currents. The air, at least in some places, is purer and more salubrious than that of Ghilan.* The inhabitants are stronger and healthier. Their eye-brows are bushy, and meet together. They live on rice, fish, and garlic. Wheat does not grow well here, but the sugar cane is cultivated, which is somewhat surprising for a latitude of 37°, and so near to the centre of Asia. It ripens four months sooner than in the West Indies, and affords an abundant juice, which the inhabitants express, and collect without art or care, obtaining only a coarse syrup or a thick paste. This product has an unpleasant taste, which might doubtless be corrected by better manipulation. A Russian merchant once attempted without success to introduce into this country a sugar-refining manufactory.†

Culture of the sugar cane.

Balfrush.

The best town in Mazanderân is Balfrush, containing 25,000 inhabitants, and enjoying a prosperous silk trade. The iron of the province of Amol is worked. This province is adorned with a very magnificent bridge. Sari is the residence of the khans. Aster-abad, an agreeable and picturesque canton, has sometimes asserted its independence of the sovereigns of Persia. Its city bears the name of the canton, and has manufactures of silk and of wool. The neighbourhood produces a valuable root used as a red dye for the beautiful stuffs of Persia. The port of Meshehed-Ser exports cotton, indigo, and Indian drugs.

Sari.

Ashraf.

At Ashraf, a place containing 4000 horses, Shah-Abbas wanted to establish his residence, and fit out a navy; but the palaces of this place went to ruin before they were inhabited. Mazanderân is said to reckon 150,000 families, and from 6 to 700,000 souls.

Taberistan.

The hilly part of western Mazanderân is called Taberistan, either from the name of the ancient Tapyri, or

* Gmelin, III. 447—476. Hanway's Travels, part II. ch. 42. Pietro della Valle. II. 208, &c.

† Trezel in MS.

from an Arabic and Chaldee word, signifying a wooded mountain. It is here that a long defile, the chief of the Caspian gates, leads from Rey to Amol. Another defile leads from eastern Mazanderân, by the district of Komis, into Khorasan. The roads in Mazanderân are very bad: there is no navigation: the boats, open and badly rigged, are neither fit to withstand the waves nor the winds. The houses are built of brick and mortar, with flat roofs.* When a traveller of distinction enters a village, the inhabitants assemble, erect a tree in honour of him, and treat him with the spectacle of a wrestling match. The Ghilanians wear the conical bonnet: that of the Mazanderanian, mounted with furs, has a long termination bent backward. The open jacket and pontaloons give them more of a European air than the other Persians.† BOOK XXXII.

Two large portions of Persia still remain to be attended to; the one consisting of the declivity towards the Persian Gulf and the Indian Seas, the other situated on the plateau of Tartary, though the greater part of this last belongs to Afghanistan.

Proceeding in a south-west direction from Ispahan, we first cross the El-Ahwas mountains, anciently called *Parachoatra*,‡ or the Mountains of Fire. These are succeeded by a large plain, where there is an immense number of serpentine rivers, and where the atmosphere is hot and moist. The only tree to be seen is the palm, and rice the only cultivated crop. This is the ancient *Susiana*. Its capital, Susa, or the city of lilies, (Sus being the Persian word for a lily,) the most delightful of all the residences of the Great Kings, is now reduced to a heap of ruins. Susiana itself has lost its ancient name. That of Khuristan, under which geographers have known it since d'Anville described it, has also, according to Niebuhr, nearly been forgotten, and Looristan substituted for it. But some learned orientalists observe, that the real general name of the province Khusistân.

* Forster, II. 315. Langlès's translation.

† This dress is figured in the Persia of the Elzevirs, p. 72. Trezel MS.

‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, Abulfeda, etc.

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is Khuristan, comprehending four subdivisions. 1. Ke sistan, corresponding to the country of the ancient Ux and enjoying a temperate atmosphere. 2. Khuristan, t country of the ancient Cossœi, who were a race of mou taineers, formidable for their robberies. This is the sa as Looristan. 3. Sousistan. or Susiana, properly so call and 4. Elam, or *Elymaïs*, which extends to the mou of the Euphrates.* The last two are fertile countri but unhealthy, and have been devastated by the Ara The tribe of Kiab has obtained some celebrity, since 17(when the Sheik Soleyman procured three English ships war, and made himself master of the whole Persian Gu The town of Shuster, which is subject to Persia, consists 8000 houses, and has a good trade in embroidered stuffs a in silk.

Kousistan. Khuristan.

Sousistan. Elam.

Shuster.

Farsistan.

From Shuster we may enter by the city of Rasi, and the defiles of Zindjeran, which are the ancient gates of S siana into Parsistan, or, as it is called by the modern Pe sians, Farsistan, the *Persis* of the ancients, the finest pr vince of the kingdom, and containing the second city in for importance and celebrity. According to the accou of the traveller Franklin, Shiraz, the capital of Farsista is situated in a fertile valley, about twenty six miles lon and twelve broad, inclosed on all sides by lofty mountain The circumference of the city is about four miles: it co tains 2000 houses. It is protected by a wall twenty-fi feet high, and ten in thickness, with round towers at eve eighty paces. The citadel is built of brick. In front has a large open space, furnished with a park of wretc ed artillery. The mosque of Kerim is magnificent, b in an unfinished state. The modern Persians excel painting with blue and gold, in a way which is particular brilliant as well as durable. The bazar presents a magn ficent assemblage of shops. The tomb of the Persian po Hafiz, is to the north-east, at the distance of two miles fro the ramparts.

City of Shiraz.

* Wahl Asien, I. 600. Assemanni, Biblioth. Orient. III. Part II. p. 41 421. Michaelis Specileg. Geograph. Hebr. chapter II. p. 68.

Environs of Shiraz.

There is no place in the world in which provisions are more plenty or of better quality than at Shiraz. It is imposible to conceive a more delightful valley than that in which this city stands. Its fields are covered with immense crops of rice, wheat, and barley. Harvest begins in May, and is generally over by the middle of July. Plenty of fruit is eaten here of the same species which are common in Europe, but much larger in size, and much more delicate in taste and odour, particularly the grapes and the apricots.* The climate is particularly fine, neither heat nor cold being experienced in the extreme. In spring, the air naturally mild and pleasant, is perfumed with the effluvia of the finest flowers, and the eye is delighted by their richly varied colours. The vales of Ooroomia and of Salmos, to the north-west of Tabriz, are the only places in the empire that can be compared with Shiraz and its autumnal bounties. The garden nightingale, which the Persians call *boolboot-hezar-dastan*, (the *turdus bubil* of Gmelin,) the goldfinch, and the linnet unite at this season their melodious accents. So many pleasures, added to the politeness of the inhabitants, and the excellence of the police, furnish some foundation for the boast of its inhabitants, that their city has not its equal in the world. Scenes so charming were well fitted to inspire the genius of a Hafiz, a Saady, or a Djamy. The females, with large black eyes, and celebrated for their beauty and their attractions, had undoubtedly a large share in animating these elegant and tender poets. But this joyous and peaceful city has not always escaped the horrors of political revolutions. More than once taken by assault, it has been given up to fire and pillage.

Gmelin.

We cannot proceed a step in Persia without encountering some monument of the cruelty of conquerors, and of human vicissitudes. Thirty miles north-west of Shiraz, and about ten to the east of the town of Mayn, are the fa-

* Franklin's Journey from Bengal to Shiraz, in Langlès' Collection of Travels, (in French) ch. 9, 14.

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Ruins of Persepolis.

mous ruins of Istakhar, or *Persepolis*, the ancient capi of Persia, in which Alexander triumphed, and in a mom of mad festivity gave way to the suggestions of a spirit wanton destruction, of which he almost instantly repent This city was destroyed ultimately by the fanatic Ara as is shown in a memoir by M. Langlès, contained in Collection of Travels.*

Period of its foundation.

We have no satisfactory means of ascertaining the ried at which Persepolis was founded. The best are p haps those suggested by the appearance of the most c spicuous remains found on the spot. Accordingly, Robert Ker Porter, in applying to this subject the ex tions of an inquiring mind, aided by extensive eruditi and correct taste, observed that the most remarkable jects contained in it, viz. the Shehel minar, or "Forty C lumns," produced in him the impression, that both as whole, and in their details, they bore a strong resemblan to the architectural taste of Egypt; a resemblance su ciently accounted for by the early hostile intercourse b tween the two countries and their interchanges of inhab tants by captivity. About forty years before the conque of Babylon by Cyrus, Nebuchadnezzar overran the wh of Egypt, and returned with the rich spoils of the cou try, and a multitude of captives. Cambyses, king of Pe sia, the friend and kinsman of the conqueror, was likely share in the ingenuity and talents of the ingenious among th captives of the former; and when Cyrus afterwards adde Babylon to his empire, he would then transfer them to h own country, and employ them in the superb edifices Persepolis. Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, in his expedi tions against Amasis and Psammeticus, kings of Egyp carried off the richest ornaments of its edifices to decorat his palaces of Susa and Persepolis and took along wit him Egyptian workmen to place them properly in thei new stations. Other princes followed the example, an Persepolis became the most splendid city in the east. Th

* Langlès, III. 199. etc. (in French.)

Description of the Shehel-minar.

mains of the Shehel-minar continue to bear testiony to this fact. To describe them fully in this place ould far exceed our bounds, and we must refer the ader to the account given by the traveller now mened, which, in graphic description, ingenious research, d irresistible interest, is not exceeded by any writg in existence. From his ample details we can only lect a few lines as a specimen. The royal palace of rty pillars, or Shehel-minar, consists of a number of ildings, forming both a palace of ample magnitude, and citadel, or bulwark for the capital, on a situation of a most mmanding character. This situation consists of an artial plain, or platform, cut out of a mountain, and having higher part of the same mountain connected with its stern side, being on the other three sides at a great eleation in a perpendicular precipice from the plain beath. On the royal mountain to the east, are the ancient pulchres of the kings, consisting of artificial excavations. he extent of the faces of the square are 1425 feet in ngth on the west side, 802 on the south, and 926 on the rth; part of the steep is faced up with gigantic square locks of dark-grey marble, without mortar, but fitted with ch precision as to appear part of the solid mountain. he general height seems to have been about fifty feet, ough now much lowered by the accumulation of ruins eneath. The only road to the summit is by an ascent of teps on the western side, forming a double flight. The teps are broad and shallow, and ten or fourteen of them re cut out of one block of marble. The ascent is so beauiful and easy, that they may be ascended and descended n horseback with the utmost facility. On ascending the latform, the first objects that meet the eye are the remains f two colossal bulls, of a noble form and attitude, indicating that they were intended as symbolical representations f power. These are sculptured in the lofty sides of an enormous portal. Other symbolical representations in *basso-relievo* are found in different places of huge size, and rather strange mixtures of the forms of different animals.

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From the great platform, different others rise, distinguished by ruins, differing somewhat in their character, and apparent destination of the buildings. On one of th are the striking ruins of the magnificent Palace of Fo Pillars. Only a few of the pillars are standing entire, different places, but the bases and other remains of the still exhibit something of the original arrangement. T former capitals and decorations of those which stand, of many of the fragments, lying on the surface of the h of rubbish, are beautiful and elegant, the taste diff ent from the Grecian, yet correct and commanding the highest degree, and executed with a delicacy wh cannot be excelled; "I gazed at them," says this trav ler, "with wonder and delight. Besides the admirati which the general elegance of their form, and the exquisi workmanship of their parts excited, I never was made sensible of the impression of perfect symmetry, comprisi also in itself that of perfect beauty." The height of ea column in the colonnade, to which, in particular, he a plies these observations, was sixty feet. These pilla seem to have been the supports of ponderous roofs massy timber. The traveller gives reasons for suppo ing that he has ascertained the precise part of this buil ing which formed the banquetting hall where Alexand displayed his triumph, in setting fire to the fabric; th place where the kings of Persia received the homage their subjects, displayed their magnificence, and dispense their beneficent orders; also the private palace which wa appropriated to the domestic intercourse of the member of the royal family. The numerous basso relievos ar highly valuable, as illustrating the ancient costumes an manners of the Persians, and their value has been in great degree communicated to the European reader by th accurate plates of them contained in the Travels now re ferred to, accompanied with the author's exposition of their meaning. Those carved on the walls of the staircase, by which the platform is ascended, are numerous, exhibiting trains of Persian subjects from the different parts of

Character of the architecture.

e kingdom, bringing presents to the sovereign, led forard in small parties by officers of the court acting as masrs of the ceremonies. In other parts are figures of the ng on his throne, and over him a symbolical representave of him, in the form of a genius, or celestial type of the rthly potentate, conformable to the views inculcated by e ancient Persian religion. Guards of different descripons are also delineated, and animals, partly exaggerated d symbolical, and partly fair representations of nature, ntributing to the effect of lively and extended ornament. attles, single combats, and other incidents in the Persian story, are here, as well as in the other Persian relics of ntiquity, represented sometimes according to nature, and other times by symbols.

Nakshi Roostam.

In the same neighbourhood is Nakshi-Roostam, or the Mountain of Sepulchres, where many celebrated sculptures have been cut in the white marble forming the face of the mountain. On the summit many sepulchres are cut out of the solid rock, and others are built of immense blocks of marble. This summit is ascended with difficulty, and chiefly by the assistance of ropes.

Mourg-Aub, or Pasargadæ.

Between twenty and thirty miles from this place are the ruins of Mourg-Aub, shown by Mr. Morier to be the ancient *Pasargădæ*, a sacred city, occupied by the magi of old, and containing the tomb of Cyrus, the remains of an ancient fire-temple, and other buildings, with sculptures which have exercised the skill of many learned persons, and are well described in the travels of Morier and of Porter. There is a tomb here called Meshed Madre-i-Sulieman, or the Tomb of Solomon's Mother, a name given at random by the natives, and which is frequently done in such cases, showing the wide extended fame of Solomon in the east. This tomb is well described by Porter, who considers it as the tomb of Cyrus, concerning which we have some interesting passages in the historians of antiquity.

The other modern cities of Farsistan, besides Shiraz, are of little importance. Komsha, Karzeroon, and Firoo-

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zabad are the principal. The only one which merits ticular notice is Yezd, situated almost in the centre of Persian and Afghan dominions. Many geographers p it in Irak-Adjemi, and some in Kerman. It is on the from Kerman to Ispahan, and inhabited partly by G bres, or worshippers of fire. It possesses a manufac of carpets and stuffs of camel's wool, and a great trad cotton cloth and silk. The immediate neighbourhoo well cultivated, and produces the finest wheat in Per Hence a Persian proverb, that "to enjoy life in perfect a man must eat bread from Yezd, and the fruits of zerbidjan, drink the wine of Shiraz, and possess a G gian wife." Yezd has 4500 houses.

Physical Geography.

The forests which are frequent on the mountains Farsistan, and the waters which refresh its romantic leys, give this province a great advantage over the plains of Irak-Adjemi. The oaks, the birches, the presses and lentisci, adorn the mountains; the pomeg nate, the pine, the orange, and the vine, enrich the le countries.* The horses have lost part of their former nown, but the race of sheep with the fat tails is preserv Yet even this fine province has deserts of considera width, extensive sandy plains, and many barren rocks. T rocks in the neighbourhood of Darabgherd furnish a ce brated and valuable article. This is *moum*, a kind of quid petroleum, perfectly limpid, and of an agreeal odour.† The cavern from the sides of which this pet leum distils, is kept with religious care. It is opened on in the year by the governor of the district of Darab, a a small quantity of the moum is obtained, which is sent the Court of Persia. It passes in that country for a balsa of miraculous power, which immediately cures the most de perate wounds.

Petroleum, called Moum.

* Franklin, Journey to Shiraz, I. p. 53. &c. of Langlès's French transl tion. Chardin, VIII. 228, 231, 428.

† Kæmpfer, Amœnitates Exoticæ, 516, 524. Langlès's Note on Chardi III. 311.

Sea coasts.

The sea shores of Farsistan have two important harbours in the possession of Arabian sheiks. The first and most southerly is Abu-Shehr, which the English call Bushear: here vessels drawing twelve feet of water can, at high water, lie close to the doors of the houses. The sheik of Abu-Shehr possesses the island of Bahrein, which enables him to keep some armed ships of war called *galvettes*. It is of the greatest importance to the city of Shiraz, of which Abu-Shehr is the nearest port, that the sheik do not rebel. Bender-Rigk is a strong place, which holds in dependance a considerable domain.

Arab tribes of the coast.

There are several independent Arabs on the shore of the Persian Gulf, and they almost all live in the same manner. They subsist by maritime trade, and by the pearl and other fisheries. Their food consists of dates, fish, and durah bread. The few cattle which they have live also on fish. Each township has its independent chief, who receives from it next to nothing in the form of salary or revenue. The arms of these Arabs are muskets with matchlocks, sabres, and bucklers. When they are at war all their vessels are employed in the service. These tribes, among whom that of the Houles* is the most powerful, all continue to speak the Arabic language, and are generally of the Sonnite sect, and consequently natural enemies to the Persians, with whom they form no alliances. The houses of these Arabs are so wretched that an enemy would think it lost labour to destroy them. As they generally have little to lose on land, if a Persian army approaches, all the inhabitants of the towns and villages go on board their little vessels, and take refuge in some island of the Persian Gulf till such time as the enemy retires.

The Houles

Laristan.

Laristan, a maritime stripe of which is called Kersamir, is the hot country, has often formed part of the government of Farsistan. Lar, its capital, possesses manufactures of arms and of silks. Although the soil is sandy, the

* Niebuhr's Arabie, I. 271, 274.

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country is full of orange and lemon trees, and tamari
dates also are in great abundance. They drink w
which is preserved in cisterns, which they carefully bo
destroy a worm in it, which otherwise they believe w
nestle between the skin and the flesh, and is as small
hair. Whether this account of it in all its minutiæ be
or not, such a worm certainly often makes its appeara
and it is not till much pain has been endured, and
danger encountered, that it is got rid of. This malad
very common almost along the whole shore of the Per

Bender Abbas.

Gulf.* Bender Abbas, a port situated opposite to
island of Ormuz, is better known under the name of G
beroon. It was formerly the most noted resort of ship
the Persian Gulf, and the general emporium for go
The Portuguese took possession of it, and in 1614 Al
the Great, with the help of the English, drove them
The trade of Bender Abbas has now greatly declin
and even the Dutch have abandoned that town and ret
ed to the island of Karek. The entrepôt of the Eng

Bender Kœng.

is now at Bassorah. Bender Kœng is the most freque
harbour between Gomberoon and Abu-Shehr.† Both
Gomberoon and over the whole of the coast, the heats
sometimes prodigious; and it often happens that a per
who imprudently exposes himself to the rays of the su
noon is suddenly killed by them.‡ The sugar cane thri
in this quarter. Between Siraf and Baanan, in the mi
of an arid upland plain, a series of rocks rise into vi
which have the appearance of broken obelisks or rui
towers.§

Isles of the Persian Gulf.

This whole shore is lined with islands. We have j
mentioned Karek, or Kharedge, where the Dutch, attr
ed by the goodness of the soil, the water, and the mo
ings, built a town in 1764. It is enclosed by coral r

* Kœmpfer, Amœnit. Ex. 525, &c. Compare Chardin, VIII. 473. (L
ley's edition.)

† Journal communicated by an Arab to Mr. T.

‡ Kœmpfer, Am. p. 729, 382. § Idem. p. 434.

ched to a limstone rock.* Probably the other islands formed of similar rocks, but not without some exceps. Ibn-el-Ouardy informs us that the island of Kais luces excellent iron.† The largest and most fertile is hmis, which the Portuguese of the sixteenth century *Queixom* and *Broct*. This last name reminds us that as the *Oaracta* of the ancients. Of all these and other nds, shaded with cocoa nuts and bananas, none has obed a celebrity equal to that of Ormuz; yet Ormuz is a rock, covered with red and white salt stones, without water fit for use, and almost without vegetation. Comce formerly made this spot a storehouse for the treasures he east. It was abandoned and forgotten in 1622, but ate has attracted the attention of the English, who have ned an establishment on it.

Kishmis.

Ormuz.

Kerman, which is extolled by the ancients for the exence of its grapes, its wheat, and its mines, is at pret known by its beautiful shawls of camel's wool, and by stuffs, formed of the silky hair of a kind of goat similar hat of Angora.‡ It produces various medicinal drugs gums: moum and tutty are found in it. It abounds atly in roses. Mount Khophez is covered with an rnal verdure; but the interior half of the country is upied by a vast desert. The city of Kerman, though rishing by its manufacture of shawls and stuffs, seems ave lost its ancient porcelain manufacture. The real ne of this place is Sirdjan.§ The towns of Kermashin, lazgherd, and Berdashyr, offer nothing worthy of notice. onda, or Hemedan, contains, according to a tradition ong the Jews, the tomb of the fair Esther, and the wise rdocheus. The maritime part of Kerman, an unlthy region, is called Mogistân, which means the coun of date trees.

Kerman.

Towns.

* Niebuhr's Travels, II. 297. (German.)

† Notices et Extraits des MSS. t. II.

‡ Olivier, V. 305—331. Niebuhr, Texeira, &c.

§ Abulfeda, translated by Reiske, p. 262.

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Mekrân, on the east of Kerman, is the *Gedrosia* of ancients. It extends along the shore of the Indian o as far as the mouths of the Indus, and is bounded in interior by Seïstan and Afghanistan. In its political dition, this province is more connected with the Af than with the Persian sovereignty. The most north and easterly parts of it, comprehending more than half, are called Beloochistan, and are subject to the ghans. The southern and western are more particul called Mekrân; but even here, the influence of the of Persia is slight and ambiguous. Chobar, and se other places on the coast, are subject to the Imân of cat, who thus enjoys a sort of ascendancy in the mari parts. These, however, are poor and sandy deserts. was here that the army of Alexander was subjecte such wretched privations in their attempt to return from dia. The interior consists of high mountainous tracts, terspersed with fertile valleys, supplied with wate mountain torrents, but containing no permanent rivers w reach the sea. The communities consist of similar mate to those of the other hilly parts of Persia, partly agri tural, partly pastoral and predatory. There are many ferent tribes and independent chiefs, of whom the Beloo are the most numerous. There are also some Loori tri whose character for robbery is singularly infamous. T murder in cold blood on the slightest provocation, abandon themselves to irregular inclinations of all ki Little disposed to family cares and affections, they few children, and keep up their numbers chiefly by m stealing.

Mekrân.

The women of Mekrân, in general, are not subjecte the same seclusion as in other Mahometan countries, appear indiscriminately in public. Further details will reserved for our account of Afghânistan. Seïstan, a p vince singular for the melancholy change both of physi and moral aspect which it has undergone, will also be d cribed in the same place.

Seïstan.

The great province of Khorasan, or the "country of

Khorasan.

" might deserve a very extended geographical descrip-
, but we must here confine ourselves to the most remark-
e points. Conterminous with Tartary, it is exposed to
at variations of temperature. The soil, though in many
es sandy and dry, produces in abundance all the ne-
aries of life, also a large quantity of indigo, gall nuts,
good cochineal. There is a great number of Turco-
ns in this province, which furnishes good pasture for
r flocks. The finest carpets in Persia are made in
orasan; and sabre blades are made here, equalling in
utation those of Damascus. The mountains furnish
s-balais and turquoise stones. The high reputation
the horses of this country leads us to believe that it was
native place of the famous Nysean horses, so much ex-
ed in history. The ancients generally concur in plac-
the *Hippobotos*, or great stud of Persia, in the
ins of Ray; so that it was necessarily on the way in tra-
ling from Babylon, or from Persepolis to the Caspian
tes.* The denomination of the Nysean plain is still ge-
ally applied, though with strong doubts, to this *Hip-
otos* of Media. Adhering to these data, we must con-
er the Nysean horses as a race diffused through a very
le country, since there were reckoned in the Hippobo-
, 150,000 horses, or, according to some, 50,000 mares.
t when we find Xerxes causing to be led in pomp, be-
e his triumphal car, *ten* Nysean horses, consecrated, and
gnificently adorned; when we find this same monarch
wn by Nysean horses, while none of that precious breed
ms to have been assigned to his guards, or to his reti-
e,† we are tempted to think with the learned Mannert,
t a distinction must be made between the great Hippo-
tos, destined to mount the whole of the cavalry, and the
d which was appropriated to the king at Nysea. But
ay be asked what Nysea this was, among all those men-

* Strabo. Geog. XI. 796, 802. Diod. XVII. 110. Arrian, VII. 13. Eustath.
Dionys. Perieg. v. 1017. Isidor. etc.
† Herod. VI. 40.

BOOK XXXII.

tioned in ancient writings. The royal studs of Pers were, by the ancients, placed in Media; this name, tak in the very extended meaning given to it by Herodotu may include Hyrcania and Parthiené, and in that case may consider Nesa on the Tedzen, corresponding to N sea on the Ochus,* as the country of the horses so mu valued by the Persian monarchs.

Cities.

For half a century the numerous towns of Khoras were devastated by civil war, and they are now slowly r establishing. Herat, which was formerly the capital Khorasan, is now subject to the Afghans.† The first S

Meshed.

phi of Persia made Meshed the capital, which contain the tomb of Muza, one of the twelve great Imans of Pe sia, whom he claimed as his ancestor. It consists of abo

Nishaboor.

4000 houses. Nishaboor is a considerable town of abo half the size of Meshed; Kelat is another, the birth-pla of the famous Nadir-Shah; Nesa is another, rich in palm in springs, and in the tombs of saints.‡ Roohi, a town 2000 houses, is the residence of the prince Kelesh Kha the chief of 12,000 wandering families. Between Nish boor and Herat§ are Meroo-Shajean, and Meroo-al-Roo situated in the fertile vale of the ancient *Margiana*, whi terminates on the confines of the desert of Tartary.

Dahistan.

Khorasan is bounded on the west by Dahistan, the cou try of the ancient Dahi, and by Djordjan, which is t territory of the ancient city of Hyrcania. These cou tries have the same productions with Khorasan.

Komis and Kohistan.

To complete our topographical view of Persia, we mu make mention of the small districts of Komis and Kohi tan. The first canton adjoining Mazanderan and Irak co tains the town of Damegan. Here also is said to be a fou tain, which sometimes sends forth a wind so impetuous to carry off men and animals, and tear up trees by t roots; it is called Bad-khané, or the house of wind, som

* Strabo, XI. Plin. VI. cap. 25. † Forster, Voyage II. 243.
‡ Hadgi-Khalfah on the article Khorasan. § Truilhier MS. Journal.

aes Tcheshmehi-Bad, or the fountain of wind.* The ovince of Kohistan is a mere desert; it is probably the est of the central plateau of Persia. Tebbes is a good wn of 1500 houses. Some connect Kohistan with Irak, hers with Khorasan. The Persian geographer, Hamolla, makes it a distinct province, extending as far as aoor. A long tract, lying on the south side of the Hino-Coosh range of mountains, in Afghânistan, is called ohistan by Mr. Elphinstone,† which certainly is altogeer different, although those who place Cohistan, or part it, near the mountains of Gaoor, or Paropamisus, would ppear to connect them together.

* Langlès' Note on the Travels of Abd-ool-Rizak.

† Account of the kingdom of Caubul.

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PERSIA CONCLUDED.

A Moral and Political View of that Country.

BOOK XXXIII.

A GENERAL idea has already been given of the politi condition of Persia. Our present object is to delineate character of the people whose country we have just scribed; a subject which, though interesting, is confesse obscure.

The ancient authors make a general distinction betwe "all the Scythias," and "all the Persias." The ori tal writers distinguish in the same way, Tooran, or Asia Scythia, from Iran, or Persia. On the monuments of P sepolis this last name is written Eriene.* It is evident identical with *Ariane*, known to the Greeks; but Ptole and Eratosthenes apply the name *Ariane* exclusively eastern Persia. The old name of Iran, or Eriene, see to have been restricted to this part, in consequence of Pe sia and Media having become warlike states, and render their own names illustrious. Herodotus, however, gives a proof of the general extension of the name Iran, *Ariane*, by telling us that the Medes were originally call Arii.† The name Iran never became extinct in the ea

Iran and Tooran. The Persias and Scythias.

* Langlès' Notes on Chardin, III. 261. Wahl, Asien. I. 222.

† Herodot. VII. 6. 2.

he Armenian geographer, Moses of Chorenè, who was rn almost on the spot, includes under the designation ria, or Ariana, the whole Persian empire in the fourth ntury.

The Scythians of Asia have always been distinct from e Persians, and were their constant and implacable ene-ies. The latter distinguished the Scythians by the name *Sacæ*, or *Sak*, which signifies dogs.* The Scythians pear, according to some not very good authorities,† to ve founded, in fabulous times, an empire which embraced rsia and the whole of western Asia; such an empire, if ever had existence, has left no traces behind it. History ly admits one known Scythian invasion, which took place 4 years before the Christian era. Very probably the ndering tribes of ancient Persia, such as the *Cossæi*, the Scythian invasion. æii, the *Mardi*, and other pastoral communities, were e remains of the Scythian hordes, who, after they were rced back into the mountains, continued to infest the cul-vated plains with their predatory incursions.

The Parthians, who, two centuries after the death of The Parthians. lexander, re-established in great glory the independence Persia, were Scythians or Sacæ, according to some au-ors of middling authority.‡ Herodotus and other wri-rs of greater weight, mention them simply as inhabitants a province of eastern Persia. Nothing in their habits or in the names of their kings gives any indication of a cythian origin.§ In short, we may consider it as clear, at up to the great revolution effected by the Arabians, nd the Mahometan religion, Iran, or Persia, has, in gene-al, been peopled by the same indigenous race, divided in-o different nations, and speaking the same language, though ith differences of dialect.

* Plin. VI. 17. Solin, c. 4. 9.

† Justin, Hist. II. cap. 3. Eusebe, Chronicon Paschal.

‡ Justin I. cap. II. (It is of the Parthians that Ammian. Marc. speaks, XI. Compare XXIII. at the end.)

§ Richter's historical and critical essay on the Arsacides and Sassanides.

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This conclusion, as drawn from historical testimony, might receive additional elucidation by a comparison of the early idioms of Persia, if time and barbarism had left us complete and incontestible monuments of that kind. The following are the facts which criticism has collected on this subject.—The most ancient dialect is the Zend language, in which the sacred books were written, which go under the general name of Zend-Ayesta, books which, though not perfectly authentic, certainly contain very ancient traditions,* and most probably, some fragments anterior to the alleged destruction of the manuscripts of the Magi, which is attributed to Alexander.† It is repugnant to common sense to call that language a jargon invented at random by the modern Guebres; but it is difficult to ascertain the places where it was spoken. Those who most strenuously support the authenticity of the Zend-Avesta, vary between Bactra,‡ the most easterly, and Adzerbidjan the most westerly country.§ Perhaps it was never a vulgar, but always a sacred language, like the Sanskrit, with which it possesses many radical terms in common. The Pehlevi, or Pehloowan dialect, that is to say, the idiom of the warriors and heroes, seems to have prevailed in Irak-Adjèmi, or the Great Media, and among the Parthians. It has even been said that this was the only dialect spoken at the court of the descendants of Cyrus, and that of the Parthian kings. It is mixed with many Chaldean and Syriac words, but is not a mere dialect of the Chaldee, as Sir William Jones seems to think.‖ According to some authors

Ancient languages.

The Zend.

Zend-Avesta.

The Pehlevi.

* Zend-Avesta, a work of Zoroaster, &c. by Anquetil du Perron, 1771. Kleuker's translation of the Zend-Avesta, with a commentary, (in German. Compare Sir Wm. Jones's letter to M. Anquetil, 1771. Meiners and Tychsen's different memoirs in the Gottingen Commentaries; but, above all, Richardson's Dissertation on the Languages of Eastern Nations, prefixed to his Persian Dictionary.

† Massoodi in the Notices and Extracts, I. 21. &c.

‡ Heeren, Idees sur la politique, etc. II. 403.

§ Anquetil de Perron, Zend-Av. *passim*. Wahl, Langues de l'Orient, p. 182.

‖ Adelung. Mithr. I. 272. Sir W. Jones's Description of the Persians, in the Asiatic Researches, and the Notes of M. Langlès.

e Pehlevi was likewise in use among some tribes in the rth of Persia, and among others the Paddans of Shiran.* The Turkish geographer says that it is spoken in e part of Farsistan. The sacred books were translated to this language, and in it there are several inscriptions the times of the Sassanides.† But by degrees, the princes this dynasty (who reigned from the year 211 to 632,) nished the Pehlevi to the mountains of Parthiene, and en introduced, by express laws, the use of the Parsee, or e dialect of Farsistan. This language, softer than the ehlevi, which, in that respect, excelled the Zend, must ave long had the ascendancy in the Persian monarchy. is the only one which furnishes an explanation of almost l those Persian names which were known to the Greeks nd Romans.‡ When the Arabians, in the seventh cenry, invaded Persia, the Parsee, banished from the court, st its high reputation, and when it was meant to be reored to its former rank, under the Dilemites in 977, it as now corrupted by a large intermixture of Arabic. Yet reat poets and able orators formed it into a rich and harmonious language, distinguished under the name of the odern Persian. The ancient Parsee, used among the uebres, will owe its immortality to the Sha-Naameh, the istorical work of Ferdoosi, and the Statistical account of ndostan, entitled Ayen Akbeir, written in 1600; for in proortion as the true Parsee lost its predominance in its naive country, it gained a fresh ascendancy at the court of he Great Mogul. At the present day the modern Persian s banished from the north of Persia, and even from Tehrân, y the ruder language of the Turks. The term *deri*, or anguage of the court,§ is now applied improperly to the

The Parsee

Modern Persian.

* P. Angelus a S. Josepho. Gazophylac. Pers. p. 199.

† Sylvestre de Sacy's Persian Antiquities.

‡ Reland de Reliquies Linguæ. Pers. in Dissert. Miscell. II. 97, 266. Adeling. Mithr. I. 275. Anquetil, Zend-Avesta, II. &c.

§ *Dar* signifies a gate and a palace. We may remark its affinity to the Danish *dor*, the German *thor*, and the English *door*, all meaning the same thing.

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modern Persian, although it is so designated by Ferdo in the following passage.

Dialects of the Persian.

"The language of the Persians was divided into se different dialects. Four of these, the *Sooki*, the *Har* the *Sagzi*, and the *Sewali*, are fallen into disuse, and ver were esteemed fashionable, but the case is differ with the other three, the *Parsee*, the *Deri*, and the *P levi*. The Parsee is distinguished for its softness, and spoken chiefly in the district of Istakhar; the Deri, der ed from the ancient Persian, is celebrated for its politen and elegance. Belook, Maroo-Shazan, and Bokhara the principal towns in which it is spoken. Some autho add to these Badhakshan."

Among these dialects, the Harohi or Herwi was spok in Khorasan, the Segs or Sagzi in Segistan, and the S wali or Zabuli in Zabulistan, a name given to the So man range in the present Afghan territory. Others me tion also the Sogd, the Khoozi, and some other dialec The Koord is like the Pehlevi, a mixture of Persian a Chaldee.

Connection of the Persian with the German and Gothic languages.

We must now take notice of a remarkable phenomen presented to historical geography by the Persian languag both ancient and modern. In all its dialects, and at a periods, this language contains not only a great number German words, but German inflections, and forms syntax.* It contains also words of Danish, Icelandic, an English, which are not German, but pure Gothic;† an to complete these irregular coincidences, it follows, in som measure, the Icelandic rules of versification, strange an

* Adelung has mentioned 221 German roots in the Parsee. The infinitive end in *ten*, *den*, &c. The prepositive articles *bi*, *mer*, *der*, correspond to *be*, *g* &c. in German. Mithr. I. 284.

† The following are a few instances:

Fretem, greatness, (in Zend.)	}	*Freya*, nourishing power, (in Iceland	
Fretaum, nourishing.	do.	}	ic.)
Thranfd, food,	do.	*Trives*, to grow fat, (Danish.)	
Gueochte, flock,	do.	*Queg*, flock, do.	
Khooda, God, (Parsee.)		*Ghood*, God, (Swedish.)	
Halao, pure, holy, (Pehlevi.)		*Halog*, holy, (Icelandic.)	

rbitrary as they are.* This resemblance, not so strong or o uniform as has been maintained by Leibnitz, who has een always copied by compilers, is still sufficiently so to rrest the notice of an Icelander taken to Shiraz, and suffi-ently so to enable us to explain the ancient Persian and candinavian names by one another. Thus the city of asargadæ, the name of which signifies, "an entrenched ersian camp," would in Icelandic be Parsa-gard; and it probably the Persian name from which the Greeks have ade Pasargadæ.

Conclusions drawn.

From the resemblance thus substantiated, system-makers ave ventured to draw a thousand conclusions. The Goths nd Germans they have found to be a Persian colony, and he Persian *Kerman* they make the etymon for Germany. Bold compilers have proceeded farther. A Scottish author, who revived the old error of those who confound the Scy-hians, the Getæ, and the Goths, has ventured to trace rom Persia to Scotland the imaginary route of a chimeri-al people, whom he has formed from so many heterogene-ous elements. These reveries vanish when we observe hat the resemblance of the Persian to the Gothic is not tronger than that of the same language to the Sanscrit, nd the other ancient idioms of Indostan.† On the other and, the resemblance of the Sanscrit to Greek and Latin s equally strong.‡ In short, from the recent observation f a great critic, the ancient Sclavonian, the resemblance of which to the Persian was already known, presents as much affinity with the German and the Icelandic, as the modern Sclavonian languages.§ Thus all these languages resemble one another; but they are all to be referred to some com-mon but unknown origin. Perhaps men of one and the same race peopled all these countries previously to any his-

* Compare Gladwin on the Rhetoric and Poetry of the Persians, and the Scalda. Iceland. MS. or Olafsen's Poetry of the ancient Scandinavians, (in Danish.)

† Paul. à S. Bartholomeo, de antiquitate et affinitate linguæ Zendicæ, Samscrdamicæ, et Germanicæ.

‡ Schlegel on the Language and Learning of the Indians, ch. I.

§ Schlœzer, in his edition of Nestor.

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torical records. Or perhaps ancient communications ha diffused the same ideas of civilization, and had subjecte to rules possessing great mutual similarity the sounds b which these ideas were expressed. We are not acquainte with the fact; but we know that no one of these natio has a better claim than another to be considered as th original stock.

Physical constitution of the Persians.

The physical constitution of the Persians is similar to th of the Syrians, the Arabians, and the Jews. It is on th whole good, but the complexion even in the northern pr vinces has a tinge of yellow. It even assumes some de gree of the olive hue, particularly in the men, in Farsista and Kerman. The hair is black, the forehead high, th nose aquiline, the cheeks full, the chin large, and the cou tenance generally oval. People of rank and wealth are o ten distinguished by a larger make. A Persian femal beauty has a middling stature, long black hair, large eyes arched eye brows, long eye-lashes, the complexion a fin carnation with a little red, a small nose, the mouth nar row, the chin retiring, the teeth white, the neck long, th breast of moderate projection, the feet and the hands smal the shape slender, and the skin extremely soft. The me are generally robust, and well adapted for military exer cise; but, from the dryness of the air, and perhaps the pre valence of saline matter in the dust, they are particularly

Clothing.

subject to diseases of the eyes. Their heads are shaved and generally covered with long crimson bonnets. The form and the ornaments of the turban vary according to rank, wealth, or private fancy. Those of the princes and grandees are covered with waving tufts of feathers, pearls, and diamonds. The monarch alone wears on his head the emblems of the sun, or of the terrestrial globe.* The beard is sacred with the Persians, and cultivated with the utmost care. For any one to touch it is an unpardonable insult. They often wear three or four light suits of clothes over one another, bound round with a girdle. The pea-

* Wahl. Asien. I. plates III. and IV.

ntry wear only one simple surtout of a square shape, but arying in width and length in the different provinces.* he same dress, however, has not been invariably retained. appears from some paintings in the palace of the Forty illars at Ispahan, which represent the costume of the age Shah-Abbas, that large turbans, full mustachios, and nooth-shaven chins, were then the fashion in Persia, which as now given place to the high narrow black cap of sheep-in, and the long bushy beard; the latter appendage hav-g been a costume of the empire many centuries before. he women cover their heads with pieces of silk of differ-t colours. The clothes of the dancing women are shorter an those of the men, but in women of condition they des-end to the toes.† White, light, and flowing, this dress has e air of a religious habiliment, or a magnificent undress. he veil is rigidly worn in the towns. A general fashion in e Mahometan nations of the east obliges the women of ersia to wear enormously wide pantaloons stuffed with otton. The luxury of dress has sustained considerable re-renchments during the recent troubles.

Their dwelling houses, like those of the Asiatics in ge- Houses.
eral, are the reverse of ostentatious in their exterior, being enerally built of earth or mud, and no windows appearing o the view of the passenger. They are almost all flat roof-d and only one story high. The only exceptions seem o be attached to local situations. At Sultanieh, the roofs re of the shape of bee hives. At Lanker-Rood and Dey Nain, in Irac-Adjemi, those of the old buildings resemble he roofs of mosques, and seem to be the remains of an old ashion prevalent in that part of the country. At a neat illage, called Koorood, in the same province, the houses have everal stories, with flat roofs. Those of the richer classes re highly superb in the interior, yet simple in every thing hat can be denominated furniture. The floor is entirely verspread with carpets; those of Herat being the richest nd finest; and nothing else is required by prince or pea-

* Ibid. pl. V.

† Ibid. pl. VI.

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sant for seat, bed, table, and devotional kneeling,—the ly difference being in the quality. The custom of kn ing on their carpets at their prayers gives those article furniture a sacred character, and forms one reason for custom of visitors always leaving their slippers at the d The doors of the apartments are of carved or painted w and double, but always open during the day, the door- being filled by a light curtain.*

Mode of living.

The Persians eat twice or thrice in the day. Their ner is at noon. Their best meal is the supper. The vourite dish of the rich is pillaw, or boiled rice, variou dressed. Wheat is the usual food of the people. Mel fruits, and confections, form the leading articles in Persian entertainments. Persons of the bon ton were, lately, almost openly treacherous to the law of Maho in their predilection for the profane worship of Bacch but the common people have always been strangers to toxication. Their meals, ceremonious and silent, never ceed an hour.

A Persian entertainment.

The following is Sir R. Ker Porter's description of entertainment given to him by the prime minister of prince of Adzerbidjan at Tabriz. He and his compani were shown into an extensive saloon, carpeted all over, a with the usual accompaniments of nummuds, which long and narrow pieces of a thicker and softer substan made of wool or felt. On some of these sat several of officers of state, who rose on their approach; and after usual compliments, the company took their station, sitti cross-legged on the nummuds appointed for their acco modation. When the host entered, all the company ro and on being re-seated, he bowed to each person accordi to his rank, uttering a compliment suited to the esteem importance of the guest. The routine of the entertainme was the following:—Kalioons, or smoking apparatus we presented; then coffee served in very small cups, witho cream or sugar; kalioons succeeded; then tea in larg cups. After this ten minutes were occupied in conversa

* Porter's Travels, Vol. I.

on, when the minister gave a signal for dinner to be rought. Several servants immediately entered, bearing a ng narrow roll of flowered cotton in their arms, which ey laid down, and spread before the whole company, who ccupied both sides of the room. This napery was placed ose to their knees. The next service was to set a piece thin bread or cake before each guest, to be used as a ate and napkin. Then came a tray between every two ersons, containing the following articles of food:—two owls of sherbet, each provided with a wooden spoon of elicate and elegant workmanship; a couple of dishes of llau, composed of rice soaked in oil or butter; boiled wls; raisins, and a little saffron; two plates with sliced elons; two others, containing a dozen kabbobs, or mor-ls of dry broiled meat; and a dish, presenting a fowl oasted to a cinder. The whole party along the extended eb being similarly supplied, the host gave the signal for lling to; at which every back became bent, every face as brought close to the point of attack, and every jaw as instantly in motion. The rice, or other victuals, was, ith a dexterity which to strangers appeared wonderful, athered up with the fingers of the right hand, and at the me moment thrust into the mouth. No cessation could e observed in the universal, active transition of meat, me-n and sherbet, from the board to the mouths of the grave nd distinguished assembly. The sounds of mastication ere particularly audible. At this repast the foreigners ere rather losers from their awkwardness and want of suc-ss in gathering up such dishes as were in a comminuted ate. The servants cleared away in the same order in hich the things had been put down: water was carried ound, and poured on their hands over a basin, which they ied with their pocket handkerchiefs. A kalioon with tea llowed, and continued with a few interruptions during the nversation, which now, for the first time, took place. A esh kalioon finished the entertainment, and the company ose to take their leave.—Their cleanliness, both in their

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persons and houses, has been praised; yet the common pe
ple are somewhat slovenly.

In Persia a native never enters a room in boots or sli
pers, and a compliance with this custom is expected fr
foreigners. Where the unmannerly pride of the latter h
objected to it, and yet political reasons rendered it advis
ble to receive such a visitor, means have been provided
receiving him in the open air. Another point of etique
is to keep the head covered, and the English gentlemen
the entertainment now described were obliged to dine in th
cocked hats and feathers, though somewhat incommodio

The circumcision of the boys is performed by a surgeon

Marriages, funerals, &c.

The marriages are conducted through the mediation of agen
The ward-robe forms the only portion. The bride is condu
ed to her husband's house in the night with a grand proce
sion, accompanied by the light of flambleaux, and instrume
tal music. Polygamy is allowed, but the first wife enjoys p
culiar prerogatives. Their funeral processions are conduct
with much show. They raise superb tombs to the rich; su
are those of the twelve Imâns or vicars of the prophet, r
garded by the Persians as his only legitimate successors.

The luxury of the modern has several points of resem
blance to that of the ancient Persians. Umbrellas, seda
chairs, carpets for the floors, and several other convenie
cies and luxuries, have been transmitted to us from t

Treatment of women.

ancient Persians. Large gardens afford a solitary walk
the women of the great, whom jealousy, or convention
decorum, keeps aloof from the view of strangers. B
though we are led to consider their home as their priso
such is the kindly influence of habit, that the mere idea
giving even the most handsome woman more liberty, suc
as an opportunity of being seen or admired, though at
respectful distance, by other men than their husband
would be considered as a degrading insult, pregnant wit
misery. Sir R. K. Porter had his curiosity gratified wit
a view of the anti-room, or private apartment of th

* "Mais celle des filles, pratiquée par les Arabes, est inconnue chez l
Persans."

ce's palace at Tabriz, in which the ladies and female es are lodged. It is all rose-coloured, and occupies side of the square. The windows are particularly ıdid, their frames being subdivided into a variety of ıful patterns, as stars, circles, points, and a thousand entine conceits, flowing gracefully into each other, e the separations are filled with the most brilliant ıed glass of all colours and shades. Adjoining to this e is a series of elegant bathing rooms, and spacious sing rooms, the walls of which are covered with mirror s, and the floors laid with the richest carpets.—Within precincts of the harem, the wives and handsome female es are treated with great indulgence, which is sometimes ied to an imprudent length, so that these females, by an rmous expenditure in frivolous articles of dress, often the richest masters. The Persian ladies regard the as the place of their greatest amusement. They make ointments to meet there, and often pass seven or eight rs together in the carpeted saloon, telling stories, relat- anecdotes, eating sweetmeats, sharing their kalioons, completing their pretty forms into all the fancied per- ions of the east; dyeing their hair and eyebrows, and ning their bodies with fantastic devices, and not unfre- ıtly with the figures of trees, birds, and beasts; sun, n, and stars. This is spread over the breast, as far n as the navel, to which point all their garments are n, for the display of these artificial embellishments. The sian mothers have the happiness of being treated with utmost respect and kindness by their children of both s, during life. It is rather an ambiguous glory for the sians, that they have the credit* of being the inventors eunuchs as guardians to the seraglios. It is, at all Eunuchs. nts, certain that the eunuchs were as numerous and as erful at the ancient court of Persepolis as at the modern rts of Ispahan and Tehran. The education of the nces, so much admired by Plato, was, like that of the dern Persians, entrusted to eunuchs.†

Herod. VI. Joseph. Antiq. Jud. X. 16. Steph. on the word *Spada*.
Plato de Leg. III. Lucian. in Eunucho.

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In addition to an effeminate taste for trinkets and jew lery, the Persian still preserves the ancient practice painting his eyebrows and beard black.* The Pers

Dancing women.

eunuchs, and the satraps of antiquity, were entertained meals with instrumental music, performed by the danc women, whom the Greeks called musurges, and the Fre bayaderes. All that Suidas and Athenæus have said them applies to the modern Persians, and might seem be copied by Chardin in his more recent descriptio The festival of Gulryzah, or the profusion of roses, is of ancient origin; a fine climate, and a profuse vegetati render it perpetual.

The great.

The great people in Persia never walk on foot. Wh carriages are not known among them, except one or specimens of European manufacture in the possession the royal family. They always travel on horseback; th baggage, and generally their women, being conveyed camels. They travel in the night, as less exhausting the constitution, and less threatening to their health, th the heat of the day. Following up the same principle, industrious inhabitants of some of the manufacturing tow make a practice of spending some of the sultry hours of day in the public gardens, under the umbrageous foliage the trees, where they indulge in conversation, and leisur social enjoyment.‡

Barbarous punishments.

Many barbarous modes of punishment now in use of ancient institution. Rebels were burned alive, sawed in two. The victims of political differences h their eyes put out, or their ears, noses, or hands off. These were amusements for the ancient, as th are for the modern sovereigns of this country.§ Du ing the civil contests which followed the death of K

* Olivier, V. 271. Xenophon, Cyrop. I. and VIII.

† Athen. III. Suidas on the word *Musurgi*. Xenophon, Cyrop. IV. at end.

‡ Porter's Travels in Persia, vol. I. p. 389.

§ Herod. V. Plutarch in Artaxerxe. Ctesias in Pers. Xenophon Expedit Ammian. Marcell. XXIII. and XXX. Procop. de Bello Persico, &c.

Khan, Zackee Khan who usurped the government, ing to the town of Yezdikhast, made a sudden demand he magistrates for a sum of money due to the governt, which he accused them of secreting. They denied arrears, asserted they had no money concealed, and it was out of their power to collect the sum he required. finding the unhappy citizens firm in their declarations, without more ado, ordered a certain number of the most ected characters in the town to be taken to a rock, near window where he sat, and immediately hurled to the om of the precipice, where they lay a mangled spectacle orror. One of the wretched victims still survives, a umstance which, to those who look at the height of the k, appears miraculous. The present rulers are of a e benignant character; but the infliction of punishment till often too summary. Robbery is wisely treated with utmost severity; one of the princes having, in a rney, found a band of mountaineers in the act of divid- their plunder, caused their bodies to be dismally muti- d, and sent them to their friends and neighbours, to rn them of the consequences which that crime would be sure to bring after it in Persia. How different this m the institution of regular trials, which, by the delay l deliberation which they imply, accustom the offended, wever powerful and however justly indignant, to repress acts which flow from their resentment; and how differ- from those countries in which tribunals and police are used alike through every corner of an extensive coun-, for it is well known, that at a distance from the im- diate presence of royalty, the licentiousness of the ma- der experiences little restraint from the Persian govern- nt. Mr. Kinneir tell us, that he saw two thieves built in a wall, where they were left to perish.*

The ancient Persians, like the moderns, after being gged by order of the king, returned their thanks to him their knees for attending to their correction and im-

* Porter's Travels.

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provement.* Marks of the most shameful servitude w not in the least revolting to the ancient lords of Persia, they are not to those of modern times. At the pres

Servile usages.

day a courtier calls himself his master's dog; and we kn that the Satraps, under the Parthian kings, lay down the foot of the royal table, and respectfully took such le ings of the dishes as the monarch threw down to the

Pompous titles.

The genuflexions of the highest subjects, and the titles brother to the sun and the moon which they lavished on Persian monarch, did not allow the latter to believe him mortal. Like the modern Sophis, he lived inaccessible his seraglio, surrounded by women and by eunuchs. subjects, without distinction of rank, are entitled sla In short, the ancient history of Persia pourtrays alm feature for feature the same hideous spectacle of desp ism and of slavery which the modern annals of this co try present to view. There is something frightful in t hereditary succession of the same vices and the same at cities. The present monarch, and the most of his fami have the character of being in some measure honoura exceptions. They are said to be affable and humane, a harmonious among themselves. Renouncing the intem rate habits of some of their predecessors, sharing in th journeys all the toils and privations of the lowest subje with an unaffected ease, they cultivate habits which more manly and better adapted to persons whose dut embrace the happiness and protection of the whole of ciety, while their taste for information is directed to those topics which tend to the general improvement. is possible that by their intercourse with the different p lished countries of Europe, particularly through the m dium of well-informed men who visit them, and commu cate the information and the spirit which predominate enlightened communities, they may lay the foundation a new era in the national character and condition.

* Nicol. Damasc. apud Strab. XII.

† Possid. ap. Athen. XIV.

ier countries will, in their turn, copy their habits of so-
iety, the advantage may be reciprocal, and it may not be
sy to say whether they will ultimately receive or confer
e most substantial advantages.

General character.

It has often been said that the Persians are the French-
en of Asia. The inhabitants of Shiraz do indeed bear a
tle resemblance to the Parisians in the quickness and
ghtness of their walk, their volubility of tongue, their
cility at turning a compliment, the delight they take in
ying agreeable things about nothing, and the minute care
hich they take of their clothes and manner of dressing.
he Persians have, in general, much subtlety and versati-
y of mind. In this they certainly exceed. Chardin,
eir best apologist, allows that they are thievish, selfish,
nal, and incapable of any act of spontaneous generosity.
heir politeness is chiefly empty ceremony. Their hospi-
lity is both sullied with much vanity, and accompanied
y the hope of being repaid with presents. They seem to
onsider themselves as much wiser, and more sprightly than
ther nations; yet their wisdom, like that of many other
ountries, has not yet established a permanent system of
ractical political happiness, for they continually fluctuate
etween anarchy and despotism. Mild and humane in time
f peace, their temper is completely altered in their civil
ars. But, victors or vanquished, rich or poor, their gai-
ty and presence of mind never forsake them: and it often
appens that the most violent quarrels are succeeded by im-
oderate bursts of good humour.

Religion.

The Mahometan religion, which is now that of the great-
r part of the Persians, has in that country lost much of
s characteristic intolerance and fanaticism. Being Shee-
tes or followers of Ali, the Persians bear a deadly hatred
o the Turks, and others of the sect of Omar. In the
estival of Hosseyn, the son of Ali, one of the greatest
aints of the Persian sect, the streets of Shiraz ring
vith imprecations against the Sonnites.* This hatred is

* Franklin, II. 92—95.

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probably kept up by the political rivalry of the two empires, and no such feelings are cherished towards other religions. In no part of the east are the Christians of Europe better received. The Jews and Armenians are subjected to grievances, but less so than in other countries.

The persecution of the Guebres has now ceased. The reigning king even tolerates, in spite of the Persian clergy, various Mahometan sects, and among others, the Ishmaelites, whose patriarch resides at Khekh in Irak-Adjèmi.* The clergy experienced a still more marked affront under the reign of the famous Nadir. This conqueror, who, in the prosecution of his profound but cruel policy, meditated a reunion of all the Mahometan sects, brought together one day the mollahs, or doctors in theology, and the Imâns or ministers of the mosques, and asked them what use they made of their revenues. "We employ them in works of piety," was the answer; "we pay persons to offer prayers for the prosperity of the empire; we educate the youth in the public colleges." This despot thus addressed them in reply: "The calamities which the empire has now for half a century experienced, demonstrate the inefficiency of your prayers; as for the colleges, I will look after their support: and as my soldiers, the supports of the religion and the state, are the only true mollahs, I ordain that your property shall be confiscated to their use."† The Persian mosques differ from the Turkish, in having no minarets, a difference probably rather founded in architectural taste and fashion, than proceeding from any peculiarities of religious opinion.

The Zabians.

It is worthy of our notice in this place, that there exists in Khoosistan a very remarkable Mahometan sect, that of the Zabians, who have been erroneously called Sabeans and thus confounded with the adherents of the ancient worship of the heavenly bodies called Sabeism, and also with the people of Arabia Felix known under the name

* Rousseau, in the Annales des Voyages, XIV. 279.

† Langlès, Chronological note in Chardin, X. 211.

Sabâ and Shabâ, which the Greek geographers have ren- BOOK
red Sabæi. The sect now mentioned, though it has some XXXIII.
ablishments in the neighbourhood of Bassora and Lah- ———
has nothing in common with the Sabeans of Yemen,
r with the worship of the stars. It was founded in the
th century by one Nassaïri; and his religious books,
itten in a Syriac dialect approaching to the Galilean,
ow the country to which it owes its origin.* As the
bians venerate the cross, as they employ a kind of bap-
m, and call themselves "the disciples of John," they
re thought at one time to be a sect which had originated
ng with the Christian religion in Galilee; but this opi-
n has been sufficiently refuted. Their doctrines ap-
oach nearly to those of the Ishmaelites, and partly to
se of the Guebres. The name John, according to a
rned orientalist, signifies "light," and has nothing in
mmon with the denomination of the Christians of St.
hn in India.† Perhaps it is rather a remnant of the
cient Chaldean fable on the prophet and demi-god
annes. The Zabians sacrifice poultry along with a ram.
heir marriages are accompanied by several ceremonies,
ferring to the preservation of early virginity.‡

The sciences and belles lettres made a brighter figure
Persia, under the sophis, than in any other coun-
y of Asia subsequent to the time of the caliphs. The State of science and learning.
oems of Ferdoosi, of Saadi, and of Hafiz, have been
ead with delight in European translations. The lively
nd exuberant imaginations of these authors breathe the

* Norberg in Michaëlis, Biblioth. Orient. XV. p. 126, 143. Niebuhr's servations in the same work, XX. p. 1. and Norberg's reply, p. 149. The me author, de Religione et Lingua Sabæorum in Comment. Gotting. XV. . Norberg, a learned orientalist, and Professor at Lund, is now engaged in work on the dialect and doctrines of the Zabians.

† Tychsen in the German Museum, 1784, and in Murr's Journal, first umber. Brums, in the Repertor. Orient. XVII, p. 25, &c. (M. Langlès is bout to publish the alphabet of the Ssaby, or Zabians.)

‡ Bollaye-la-Gouz Voyages, p. 303. Chardin VI. 48, 143, &c. Nieb. II. 41.

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perfume of roses, listen only to the sweet notes of th nightingale and live in the world of genii and of fairies but there is little solidity in their thoughts or sentiment We have in their writings the picture of a Persian su presiding over paradises and deserts. Some feeble ligh of literature still subsist, which the reigning sovereign e deavours to cherish and extend. The Arabic, Turkis and Persian languages, elocution, poetry, theology, m dicine, and astrology, are taught in numerous sem naries. Were it not that Turkey intervenes as a barri between European light and the genius of the Persians, w should probably find this Asiatic nation making an extr ordinary step of advancement. In Persia, men of lear ing are held in esteem, and the most important places a conferred on them; while in Turkey the most ignora barber may be made the mufti, and a porter, who can ne ther read nor write, a minister of state.* From some the details contained in this and the preceding book, will appear that the powers of imitation and invention, displayed in the arts of painting and of statuary, are no proscribed in Persia as they are in Turkey, although th degree of proficiency has been variable at different epochs and is at the present moment far from being high.

Industry.

The natural talents of the Persians have found exercis in the career of industry. Chardin has given a very m nute description of the manufactures and trade of Persi in the seventeenth century. The art of embroidering o cloth, silk, and leather, was carried to a high degree of per fection. There were manufactures of pottery in ever part of the kingdom; the best came from Shiraz, fro Meshed, and from Yezd. That of Zarang equalled th porcelain of China in fineness and transparency. Some o it possessed the property of resisting fire, and was s hard and tough that mortars were made of it in whic hard substances could be pounded. The porcelain mad in Kerman is renowned for its lightness and elegance, and

* Olivier, voyage en Perse, chap. 10.

t is from this province, then called Carmania, that Pliny ells us that a great proportion of murrhine vases were rought to Europe.* These were probably only a sort of orcelain formed by a process now lost. The manufac-ures of leather, of shagreen, and of morocco, are as old s the Parthian kings, and perhaps the days of Cyrus.† They subsisted when Chardin travelled, and are still n a flourishing state. The Persians are great braziers; hey employ the tin of Sumatra in tinning their kitchen tensils. The bows of Persia were the most esteemed of he east, and their damasceened sabres, made of the iron nd steel of Indostan,‡ were considered by Chardin as urpassing the skill of any armourers in Europe. Their azors and other steel manufactures were also much in re-uest. They excelled in the cutting of precious stones, nd in dyeing colours which united brilliancy with durable-ess. Their glass manufactures were less deserving of no-ice. Their cotton and woollen stuffs, and those made of oats and camels hair, their silks, their brocades, and their elvets, had arrived at great excellence. The carpets so ighly valued came chiefly from the province of Seistan. Chardin adds, that in his time, they were called Turkey arpets, because they passed through Turkey on their way o Europe. The camel-hair stuffs were generally made in Kerman, and those of goats-hair in the mountains of Ma-zanderân; but the cotton cloths came chiefly from Indos-tan. The making of broad cloths was not known, and their place was supplied by a kind of felt. The king himself had a share in the trade of silk, brocade, carpets, and trinkets, which probably fettered in some measure the freedom of commerce in the country. Silks of different fabrics were the staple commodities. The exports to In-dia consisted of tobacco, preserved fruits, particularly

Shagreen, morocco.

* Pliny XXXVII. 2.

† See the passages quoted by Mongez, in his memoir on the Persian costume, in the Memoirs of the French Institute. Literary Class IV. p. 152. Compared with p. 86.

‡ Chardin IV. 136. Langlès's edition.

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dates, wines, horses, porcelain, and leathers of different colours. Those to Turkey were tobacco and cooking utensils; and to Russia manufactured silks.

Present state of the arts.

Nor has this state of things changed so much as might be supposed. Excellent sabres are still made at Casbin, and in Khorasan. The fine quality of the steel is known by its waving clouded streaks. They are damasceened with gold. These blades do not bend. The sabres of Casbin cost from sixty to eighty dollars, but those of Khorasan are as high as a hundred sequins, or upwards of L.30 sterling. Among the Persians as well as the Turks, all metals are hammered cold; even the horse shoes are made in that manner. This is said to give them greater solidity. The Persians are still acquainted with the silvering of glass, and the cutting of diamonds. They do not seem, generally speaking, to have lost any of the arts which they practised in Chardin's time, and they have acquired some new ones, such as the art of enamelling, which they execute very well.*

Navy. Trade.

The want of building timber, and the heat of the climate, seem to have prevented the Persians from establishing a navy in the ports which they possess on the Persian Gulf. All their maritime trade is conducted by foreign vessels. The most lucrative used to be that which they carried on by Ormuz and Gomberoon with the English and other nations, but their perpetual wars have now ruined it. Yet the goods which annually enter the Persian Gulf are estimated at half a million sterling. Two-thirds are brought by the English, and the remaining third by the Moors, the Indians, the Arabians, and the Armenians. The cargoes of the vessels consist of rice, sugar, and cotton, Bengal muslins, plain, striped or sewed; spiceries from Ceylon and the Moluccas; white and blue coarse linen from Coromandel, cardamom, pepper, and Indian drugs. Were Turkey in Asia in the possession of European powers, the Persian Gulf might recover all its ancient importance. Caravans between Bassora and the Syrian ports

* Beauchamp, Journal des Scavans, 1790, p. 736.

would offer greater security than the navigation of the Red Sea. The Danube might also receive the fleets from Trebisond and Phasis, loaded with the merchandise of Persia. On the other hand, if the Afghan power were consolidated by the conquest of Bucharia and of Kowaresm, Russia would not long delay to conclude a treaty with this people, by which she might divert to the Caspian Sea a part of the valuable trade which now goes down the Ganges, and round to the Thames. BOOK XXXIII.

Such is the general idea which we have formed of the Persians, on comparing the relations of travellers with one another. But the sketch must be avowedly incomplete, till we take into view the numerous pastoral tribes dispersed over every part of the territory, which, according to the most recent accounts, form a sort of second nation, almost independent of the Persians, and often hostile to them.* We shall subjoin to the present book a tabular view of these different nations. The Turcoman hordes diffused over the northern part of the empire, reckon 420,000 individuals. The Efchar tribe in Adzerbidjan, which is 88,000 strong, gave birth to the ferocious, but able Nadir Shah. That of Katchar, which consists of 40,000, and which lives in the neighbourhood of Tehrân, has given Persia her present sovereigns; and the Turkish language prevails at the court of Futteh-Ali-Shah. The Koordish tribes of Persia, among which the Erdilany are the most powerful, amount to 90,000, not including the agricultural Koords. The Loor, or Loorian tribes, whose population is estimated at 140,000, chiefly roam among the mountainous countries between Khoosistan and Irak, and which, from them, have received the name of Looristan. They speak a dialect of their own, which still sufficiently resembles the Koordish language to be sometimes confounded with it.† As Hadgi-Khalfah maintains that three languages are spoken in Farsistan, the Parsee, the Arabic, and the Pehlevi, we may, with considerable probability, infer that the Loorish language,

Pastoral hordes.

Turcomans

Koord tribes.

Loor tribes.

* See the subjoined table of the Persian nations.

† Compare Otter's Travels, I, 267. (in German.) Sanson's Travels in Persia.

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Arab tribes.

the only dialect now known in Fars, besides the Arabic and Parsee, is the Pehlevi, or at least a dialect of that ancient language. The coast of the Persian Gulf is, in a manner, given up to the Arab tribes already described; but there are also in the interior some wandering tribes of the same nation, amounting to 90 or 100,000 persons. A particular class of them seems to be formed by the Ghelaky, in the mountains of Ghilan, who, within their own community, speak a peculiar idiom, while the Ambarlins, or inhabitants of the valleys, speak a dialect of the Persian.* The Paddars, the Hassarais, and other tribes who are little known, wander along the banks of the Araxes.

All these wandering hordes receive among the Persians the common appellation of Elaut. They have long constituted the principal strength of the Persian armies,† and it is by them that the country has been revolutionized, as the Roman empire was overthrown by the Goths. An Elaut always affects a kind of independence, and measures his deference to civil authority by his existing situation; obeying on the side of his stream, or disobeying in the fastness of his mountains. On this account, as a check to this unconnected and wilful political character, the fashion has arisen of drawing their principal chiefs to court, where many of them are found mingling the refinements of the capital with their bolder habits; delegating, in the mean time, their authority over their tribes to the chiefs next in rank. With a government and people who have a nascent taste for national improvement, this arrangement may in time become productive of all the most important advantages of an extended representation.

The Afghâns.

Of all these tribes, none has made so much noise as the Afghâns, called in India Patans, who are generally considered as belonging to the Persian empire, and occupying its eastern provinces; but having for a long time maintained an independent government, will be described in another book.

* Gmelin's Travels in Persia, III. 350 and 352. (in German.)

† Abdool Kerym's Journey from India to Mecca, p. 37. (Langlès's translation.

able of the Geographical Positions of Persia Astronomically observed.

Names of places.	Long. E. from London.	Latitudes.	Observers.
	deg.min.sec.	deg.min.sec.	
alfroosh	. . .	36 34 43	Trezél.
ehrán	. . .	35 39 55	The same.
asbin	49 53 15	36 11 0	Beauchamp.
auris, or Tabriz . . .	46 25 0	38 4 0	Major Menteith and Mr. Brown.
pahan	51 50 15	32 24 34	The same.
ezd	. .	32 7 11	Trezel.
rmuz	. .	27 8 0	The same.
ar	. .	27 21 15	The same.
bu-Shehr, (or Bender Boosher)	. . .	28 59 0	Niebuhr.
hiras	. . .	29 36 37	The same.
ina, or Sneirne . . . (probably Sinné, or Senney, in Koordistan.) .	. . .	34 23 35	Simon, French consul. See the Phil. Trans. 1755, vol. XLIX. p. 251, and Zach's Corresp. III. 571, &c.

omparative Table of the Ancient and Modern Divisions of Iran or Persia, including Afghânistan, or Eastern Persia.†

Modern Provinces.	Ancient Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sovereigns.
hirwan . . .	Albania.	Shamakie, &c.	Russia or khans
V. D. For the subdivisions see Book XXV.	See Book XXV.	See Book XXV.	who are vassals of Russia.
		Shooshe.	
Erivan, or Persian Armenia.	Armenia persica.		
ee B. XXVII.	See B. XXVII.	Erivan	Futteh-Ali,
		Nackshivan.	Shah of Per-
		Khoy.	sia.
dzerbidjan . .	Media Atropatene.	Tauris . . .	The same.
		Ardebil.	
		Maraga.	
		Urmia.	
Ghilan	Country of the Gelæ or Cadusii	Recht . . .	The same.
*Dylem.		Astara.	
*District of Lengkerân.		Einselly.	
		Lengkerân.	Khan dependent on Russia.

† The Table, as given by the author, is translated here entire, although the more precise information which has been obtained since the original work appeared has led us to give the Afghân empire, in Eastern Persia, a separate place. See Book XXXV.—Tr.

Table continued.

Modern Provinces.	Ancient Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sovereigns.
Mazanderan . .	Western part of the Satrapy of Hyrcania.	Balfroosh . . .	Futteh-Ali-Shah.
(Annexations.)			
1. Taberistan.	Country of the Tapyri.	Sari.	
2. Djordjan .	Hyrcania propria.	Astrabad.	
3. Dahistan .	Country of the Dahæ.	Ashraf. Amol.	
Khorasan . . .	Parthyene . . .	Meshged . . .	The same.
		Nishaboor.	
		Toon.	
	Asia	Herat	The king of th Afghans.
		Rooki . . .	Khan almost i dependent.
	Margiana . . .	Maru-el-Rud . .	Usbeks of Bokh ra.
Irak-Adjémi . .	Media magna.	Ispahan . . .	Futteh-Ali-Shah.
*Isfahaun . .		Tehran.	
*Kom . . .		Kashan.	
*Kashah . . .		Kom.	
*Rey	Media Rageiana.	Kasbin.	
*Hamadan, &c.	Cambadene, (Isidor.)	Hamadan.	
(Annexations.)		Kirmansha, &c.	
Kohestan . .	Tabiene . . .	Tebbes.	
Komis . . .	Comisene . . .		
Persian Koordistan	Part of Assyria, &c.	Senney . . .	The same.
		Shaush-Poolat.	Independent tribes of Me kris and Bil bas.
Khooristan . .	Susiana (a satrap.)	Sooster, or Tchootchter.	
1. Housistan . .	Countries of the Uxii.		Futteh-Ali-Shah.
2. Sousistan . .	Susiana propria.		
3. Khoosistan, or Looristan .	Country of the Cossœi, or Syro-Media.		
4. Elam . . .	Elymais . . .	. . . . .	Arab tribes scarcely subject.
Farsistan . . .	Persis, or Persia propria.	Shiraz	Futteh-Ali-Shah.

Table continued.

odern Provinces.	Ancient Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sovereigns.
1. Khooreh Asheh . .	Parætacene.	Komsha.	
2.—Kobaad.		Yesdekast.	
3.—Shapoor.		Kazeroon.	
4.—Ardshir.			
Kermass or Shif-el-Bahr.	*Mesambria, (i. e. southern coast.)		
5.—Arradjan.		Bender-Rigk.	
6.—Dshiaur. (Firoozabad.)		Bender-Aboo-sher.	
		Firoozabad.	
7.—Durab.	Pasargadæ . .	Aberkhou.	
8.—Istakhar.	Persepolis . .	Darabgherd.	
9.—Aberkon.	. . . . .		
10.—Yezd . .	Isatichæ of Ptolemy.		
Aristan . . .	Part of Mesambriza, or Persis Maritima.	Laar, or Lar . .	Futte-Ali-Shah.
*Part of Kermesir.		Taroom.	
*Hormooz, a province in the middle age . . .	Harmuzia.	Funit.	
		Bender-Abbas, or Gomberoon.	(Arab Sheïk dependent on the Imân of Muskât.)
Kerman . . .	Carmania . . .	Kerman or Sirdjan . . .	Futte-Ali-Shah.
Sirdjan.		Berdsheer.	
*Berdasheer.		Velasgherd.	
*Velasgherd, &c.			
Mogistan . .	. . . . .	Minau.	
Mekran . . .	Gedrosia, with the coast of the Ichthyophagi . . .	Tiz	One or more princes or vali, independent, or nearly so.
*Malan . . .	Country of the Arabitæ and Horitæ.	Kieh.	
		Pendjpoor.	
		Malan.	
Seistan . . . (Seghistan.)	Drangiane . . .	Zareng	The Afghâns, or the king of Caubul.
		Farra.	
	Sacastene, (of Isidorus.)	Dergasp.	

BOOK XXXIII.

Table Continued.

Modern Provinces.	Ancient Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sovereigns in 181
Sabulistan . . .	. . . . .	Rokhadje . . .	The Afghâns, o
1. Arokhadje.	Arachosia.	Bamian.	the King o
2. Bamian .	Paropamisæ,		Caubul.
3. Ghaur . .	(their country.)		
Kaubul, or Afghânistan . .	Paropamisadæ,	Caubul	The same.
1. Kandahar.	(their country.)	Kandahar.	(*N. B.* Afghâ
2. Peria.		Peshawer.	nistan is
3. Kasaridjat.			name some
4. Thooran.			times applie
			to the whol
			Afghân em-
			pire.

Table of the Nations that inhabit Persia, taken from M nuscript Journals of several French travellers, includi Eastern Persia.

I. *Agricultural or manufacturing nations, living in fixed dwellings.*

1. The modern Persians, called Tadjiks or tributaries by the wande ers. Consisting of a mixture of ancient Persians, Tartars, Ar bians, and Georgians. Number supposed, at most, 10 millions.
2. The Parsees or Guebres, remains of the Persians of the fifth an sixth centuries, worshippers of fire. At Yezd, &c. In Kerma and Mekran. Number supposed 100,000.
3. The Afghans.
   a. Afghans properly so call. In Kandahar, Cabool, Arrokadje &c. Number 500,000.
   b. The Balloodjes. See the wandering tribes.
   c. The Rohillas, or Patans. In Indostan.
4. The Ghelaky, or ancient inhabitants of Ghilan. Number 50,000.
5. The Armenians. In Armenia and Adzerbidjan, 70,000.
6. The Jews. At Ispahan, Shiraz, Tehrân, Kashan, 35,000.
7. The Zabians. In Khoosistan, 10 or 12,000.

II. *Wandering tribes, which live by their flocks, or by fishing, changing, or at least liable to change, their abodes.*

1. Tribes of the Turkish language.
   a. The Efshars, 88,000 persons. In Adzerbidjan, and several other provinces. Their principal place is Urmia. Subdivided into Kasemloo and Erechloo.
   b. The Kadjars, 40,000. (Native tribe of Futte-Ali-Shah.) Their nucleus at Astrabad in Mazanderan; at Meroo in Khorasan; at Erivan, &c.
   Subdivided into Jokaru Bashi, and Ashaga Bashi.

c. The Mukaddem, 5000. At Maraga in Adzerbidjan. A remarkably brave tribe.
d. The Dombeloo, 12,000. In Armenia; in the neighbourhood of Khoy and of Selmar.
e. The Turcomans, 12,000. In Adzerbidjan; near Hamadan in Irak; near Khazeroon in Farsistan.
f. The Talish, 15,000. In Mazanderan and Ghilan.
g. The Karagheusli, 12,000. Near Hamadan.
h. The Bejat, 20,000. In Adzerbidjan, at Tehran, at Neshaboor, (in Khorasan,) in Farsistan, &c.
i. The Shasevend, 14,000. Near Ardebil and Rey.
k. The Djisvanshir, 7000. At Shooshé, in Shirvan, vassals of the Russians.
l. The Djelaïr. Number Unknown. At Kelat in Khorasan.
m. The Fars Modanloo; in Farsistân; 10,000.
n. The Kodjavend; in Ghilan and Mazanderan; 4 or 5000.

Twenty-eight less considerable tribes, and of which our accounts in detail are uncertain.

2. Tribes of the Arabic language.

(1.) Arab shepherds introduced by Tamerlane.

a. The Bestanié; at Bestan in Khorasan, 12,000.
b. The Thooni; in Khorasan; 15,000.
c. The Djindaki,; in an Oasis of the great salt desert.
d. The Agakhani; in Low Farsistan; 15,000.
e. The Ahwas; in the plains of Khoosistan.
f. The Athullai, in Kerman; 6000. Three other tribes of 3000 or 9000 each.

(2.) Arab fishermen, on the sea coast.

a. The Beni-Kiab, in Khoosistan, (Elam.)
b. The Arab Hindiân; on the shores of Farsistan.
c. The Beni-Hoole; the same.
d. The Arab-Lindje, (perhaps of the town of Lundje;) the same.

3. Tribes of the Loorish language.

a. The Zend, near Ispahan, and in the north part of Farsistan; 12,000.
b. The Lekes, in Farsistan; 20,000.
c. The Khogiloo, the same; 15,000.
d. The Zinguénéh, environs of Kirmanshah; 6000,
e. The Feïli, in Looristan, between Sooster and Kirmanshah; 40,000.
f. The Bactyari, in Looristan, between Sooster and Ispahan; 30,000.
g. The Kerroos; environs of Khamsé; from 8 to 10,000.
h. The Kara-Zendjiri, near Kirmanshah, 7000.

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4. Tribes of the Koordish language.
   1. In Koordistan.
      a. The Mekris; independent, able to muster 3000 horses one day.
      b. The Bilbas; independent, scattered; able to raise 15,0 men, and 5 or 6000 houses.
      c. The Giafs; inhabiting the states of Abdul-Ramal, an ind pendent chief; 4 or 5000 families.
      d. The Goorars; environs of Senney, subject to the valhi Persian governor.
      e. The Baras; 1000 families.
      f. The Sunsur; 1200 families.
      g. The Leks; 1000 families.
      } Country and politic state the same t Goorars.
      h. The Kotchanloos; 10,000 persons.
      i. The Shagaghis; 15,000 souls. A peaceful, agricultural, a happy tribe. Distributed through Adzerbidjan.
   2. Out of Koordistan.
      a. The Reshevend; in the canton of Taroon, near the defile Rootbar, between Irak and Mazanderan, 10,000 persons.
      b. The Pasequi, between Rey and Tehrân, 3000.
      c. The Zafferanloo; 10,000 persons, in Khorasan.
      d. The Erdelani; in Khoosistan.
      e. The Boinoord; in Khorasan; 8000 persons.
      f. The Modenloo; in Mazanderan; 4000.
      g. The Embarloo, &c. &c.

5. Tribes of the Patan language.
   a. The Ballootches, in Mekran.
   b. The Hyber.
   c. The Serwani.
   d. The Abdolli and several other tribes, descended of the sam stock as the Afghans, and speaking nearly the same languag wandering rather as plunderers than shepherds, or nomade in the eastern part of Persia.

Note—In the travelling journals some other tribes are mentioned, such as th Kishlaks in Kersemir and Koordistan; the Seïdes, who pretend to work mira cles, and who live in Adzerbidjan, &c. but those manuscripts which we hav had an opportunity of consulting give no further information respecting thes tribes.

We expect from M. Joannin, Knight of the Order of the Sun, first interprete of the French legation in Persia, a complete work on the nomade tribes of Pe sia. Messrs. Amédée Jaubert, Master of Requests, Fabvier, Trézel, an Treilhier, French officers, have also made various remarks on this new an interesting subject, which was, I believe, first brought into notice in the Travel of Abdul-Kerym, (p. 37 of M. Langlès' translation.) We are also indebted to M. Adrien Dupré for the communication of a very complete table of the nomade tribes.

BOOK XXXIV.

CASPIAN SEA.

eographical Dissertation on this Sea, and the ancient mouth of the river Oxus or Gihon.

FEW subjects in geography have afforded more matter of scussion than the Caspian Sea. The peculiar nature of is sea is one of the most interesting subjects of physical quiry. Geographical criticism has formed a diversity of nclusions regarding its situation, form, and extent, though ere can be no doubt that the sea itself has continued untered from the remotest times.

Situation. According to the latest astronomical observations and cal measurements, the Caspian Sea extends from north to uth, in a longitudinal direction, nearly all of equal width, xcepting a contraction which occurs at the encroachment ade by the peninsula of Apsheron. The northern end orms a large bay, turning round from the north to the orth-east, and approaching to the basin of the lake Aral.

Extent. The length of the Caspian Sea may be estimated at 760 iles, in a line drawn from north to south, that is, from the ay of Kolpinskom, on the west of the river Ural, to Balroosh. This line, however, crosses the peninsula of Karagan. Its smallest width is 113, and its greatest width, hat is, between Astar and Daghistan, 275 miles.

History of the charts of the Caspian. The situation of this sea, though now well known, was not ascertained a hundred years ago. The ancients laboured under a general mistake that it was a gulf of the

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Northern Ocean, and this was not corrected till the sec century of our era. Ptolemy re-established the fact, wh had been known to Herodotus, and perhaps to Aristo The Caspian Sea was then restored in the maps to the fo of a lake or inland sea, separate on all sides from the no ern and every other ocean.* But, instead of having longest diameter in a direction from north to south, it described as longest from east to west. One reason for view of it was, that the Northern Ocean was still thou to come much nearer to it than it did, and not to le room in a northerly direction for the dimensions of this the total extent of which was pretty well known. Bes this, the lake Aral being imperfectly known, was consi ed as a part of the Caspian Sea. This notion is show have been entertained by the opinion which the anci had of the mouth of the river Oxus, an opinion which be discussed in the present book.

Ptolemy's plan.

During the darkness of the middle ages, the editors maps confined themselves to the copying of those of Pt my. In this the Caspian Sea occupied 20 degrees from to west; the lake Aral was confounded with it; and the hon or Oxus fell into it at the place where the city of B is marked in our maps. The first learned traveller who s stituted actual observations for vague and obscure tra tions, was the English merchant Mr. Jenkinson, who t velled in 1558 and 1561, at the expence of the Russ Mercantile Company of London. Sailing from Astrak he visited the northern coast, as far as the mouth of Yemba; disembarked at Mangislak, from whence he w to Bokhara. He distinguishes the lake of Aral by name of the lake of Kithay. In his second journey, went by the Caucasus, to the southern shores of the C

Travels of Jenkinson, Burrough, and Olearius.

* The passages of Herodotus, Aristotle, Strabo, Ptolemy, and others, quoted and discussed in the author's History of Geography, which forms first volume of the original, though it has been thought advisable in the pre translation, to alter in this respect the order of the work, by making the hist of this science the concluding part. The English reader has in this way m speedy access to the most essentially interesting branches of the subject. T

ian Sea. He was succeeded by his countryman Christo-her Burrough, who, in 1580, crossed Russia, and embark-ng at Astrakan, sailed along the western shores of the Caspian, and determined by observation the latitude of several points.* In 1633, the learned Olearius, (or Oel-chlæger, a native of Ascherleben, and professor at Leipsic,) who accompanied an embassy from the Duke of Holstein to he Sophi of Persia, ascertained the latitude of many points n the western and southern shores of this sea.

The whole of these insulated observations continued al-most unknown to the learned of Europe; at least it would e difficult to produce a French, English, or German map f the 17th century, in which the Caspian Sea has a form in he least degree approaching to the truth. That of John truys, a Dutchman, undoubtedly the most conspicuous, ets down Astrakan on the eastern shore, and places the slands of the Wolga in the middle of the sea.† It was eserved for Russia to find out the truth. The possession f the city of Astrakan, and the extensive schemes of Peter . created doubts on the form of this sea. Then travels nd hydrographic surveys threw additional light on it, till naps were at last constructed which, though rude, exhibit-d much new truth in the midst of a cloud of error. These naps, prepared from the year 1700 to 1710, by Kirilow ounsellor of state, Admiral Soimonow, and Vice-Admiral Cruys, a Norwegian,‡ are now become very scarce even in Russia. In 1717, Peter I. employed some Dutch navigators o explore the Caspian Sea. These were engaged for three ears in drawing a chart under the direction of one Charles Van Verden. The Czar, during his visit to Paris, had fre-uent conversations with the learned geographer Delisle,§ nd, at the request of this academician, caused the chart of

Map of John Struys.

First Russian Maps.

* Compare Hakluyt, vol. i. p. 417. Blumenbach, in Zach. iii. 580.

† Zeekaert. vertonende de Caspische zee, etc. geteekentd oor Jan Jansen Struys, 1668.

‡ Cruys, ou Creux, born at Stavanger in Norway. Snédorf, Révolutions de l'Europe, dans ses Œuvres completes, vol. ii. part 3. p. 290, (en Danois.)

§ Mem. de l'Acad. des sciences, p. 382. 1720.

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Van Verden, (to which he had himself given some assis ance,) to be sent to the Academy of Sciences of Paris, a likewise that of Vice-Admiral Cruys, neither of which to any notice of the longitudes. On examination, Deli found them still to labour under glaring mistakes. Th of Cruys placed Astrakan on the eastern shore of the Ca pian; the same places were laid down twice, at a distan of nearly 300 miles; the latitudes, which at that time mig have been easily ascertained within four or six minutes the truth, were five or six degrees wrong. The Fren academician published the four different representations the Caspian Sea, from the data furnished by Ptolemy, Abulfeda, by Cruys, and by Peter I. and added to them new critical sketch, from the observations of Burroug Jenkinson, and Olearius.*

Twenty years elapsed before any attempt was made improve the geography of these countries. A new comp ny of English merchants then undertook the project of ope ing an intercourse with India by Astrakan. The celebra ed Jonas Hanway, who, in his travels in Persia, has gi en a history of that enterprise, received in 1745 fro Captains Seton and Woodroof a new chart of the Caspia Sea, containing few observations not formerly know Hanway published another, which, being made out accor ing to the old plan of projection, gives a bad outline. Abo the same time a German traveller, Dr. Lerche, made son excellent observations on the coast of Daghestan and Shirwan.

Hanway's travels.

Critical chart of d'Anville.

The celebrated d'Anville finding some manuscripts in th royal library, drew from them a new chart,† in which th Caspian Sea was removed one degree to the east, but wa still two degrees out of its true situation. Twenty year afterwards the hydrographer Bonne contrived a new sys tem for the determination of this great problem. He ad mitted the correctness of Father Bèze's observation on th

System of Bonne.

* Mem. de l'Acad. 1721. p. 245. Carte de la mer Caspienne. 2 feuilles, 172

† Essai d'une nouvelle Carte de la mer Caspienne, 1754.

ongitude of Trebisond, though now known to be 7½° wrong, and the incorrectness of which had then been demonstrated by Delisle.* Along with this he placed Goriew at he north end of the Caspian, agreeably to the accurate observation of the Russian academician Lowitz.† A false bservation being thus combined with a true one, Georgia, nd the other Caucasian countries were carried too far to he east by an excessive lengthening of the Black Sea, and ccupied what ought to have been the middle of the Caslian, the northern part of which remained in its true situaion. Hence, the whole of this sea received an oblique diection from north-west to south-east, and was represented fifth part more than its real length. D'Anville opposed his system of Bonne, and maintained the true direction of he Caspian Sea.‡

In the nautical expedition in which Gmelin and Hablitzl were concerned, all the latitudes, and some longitudes of the astern and the southern shore were determined. The obervations of these various travellers, taken along with he longitude of Casbin ascertained by M. Beauchamp, nd compared more recently with the numerous journals of French officers who have returned from Persia, seem at ast to have fixed the extent and position of the Caspian Sea. Less easterly, more indented, and more bent than l'Anville has represented, it still has, agreeably to the opinion of that learned geographer and of Peter I., a direction nearly parallel to the meridian.

Modern observations.

If the reader will pardon this exposition of the long continued errors and deceptions of mathematical geography, which to those not deeply concerned in such matters may be somewhat dry, it is hoped he will have more pleasure in following us in the description of the physical characters of this singular sea. The level of it is lower than that of the ocean or the Black Sea. Olivier makes a difference of 64 feet. Lowitz, whose researches seem to have been un-

Physical description.

Level.

* Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1720, p. 381.

† Nova Comment. Acad. Petrop. XIV. 1769, Part II. p. 153.

‡ Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1774. p. 368.

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known to that learned traveller, makes it only 53.* The north and south winds, acquiring strength from the elevation of the shore, added to the facility of their motion along the surface of the water, exercise a powerful influence in varying the level of the water at the opposite extremities. Hence, its variations have a range of from four to eight feet,† and powerful currents are generated both with the rising and subsiding of the winds. Some difference also arises from the melting of the snows swelling the rivers. Of these the Wolga and the Ural or Iaik are the most distinguished on the European side; the Tedzen or Ochus, the Kesil-Ozen, and the Khoor, on that of Asia.

Periodic variation.

It has also been said to be subject to another variation, which observes very distant periods. We are told that since 1556, the waters of the sea have encroached on the Russian territory to the north. This is a fact which might deserve to be better ascertained. The depth of this sea is inconsiderable, excepting at the southern extremity, where bottom has not been found at a depth of 2400 feet.‡

Pallas and others have indulged in the geological speculation first advanced by Varenius, of the former existence of a much greater extension of this sea to the north-west, and a union of it with the sea of Azof along the low grounds, abounding in shells and saline plants, and where the Manitch flows to the sea of Azof, and the Kooma to the Caspian. But of such an extension not the slightest historical trace is to be found in any creditable author. The ideas of the ancient geographers respecting a great extension of this sea to the east have no relation to this supposed strait. The voyages of the Argonauts would not be at all explained by such a strait, and require no such explanation.§ The supposition of the Black Sea having stood at a higher level, and being separated from the Mediterranean by a conti-

Errors on the subject.

* Georgi, Russie, I. 258.

† Hanway's Travels in Persia, I. 289.

‡ De Sainte-Croix, Examen des Historiens d'Alexandre, p. 701.

§ The subject is more minutely treated in the author's History of Geography, already referred to.

nuation of land across the Thracian Bosphorus till that isthmus was ruptured, and a devastating deluge succeeded by the sudden exit of the waters of the Black Sea and of the Caspian with which it had been previously continuous,—all this hypothetical history is subverted by incontestable physical truths. The valley of the Bosphorus is natural, and not formed by any violent catastrophe. The united waters of the Euxine and Caspian Seas, raised to the height requisite to form such a deluge, would have found an exit by different valleys from those of the Bosphorus.* The general deluges described in these early writings, if they had any reality, were probably nothing more than local inundations limited to certain parts of Greece.† The stagnant water mentioned by a Byzantine author as existing on the north side of Caucasus in the fourth century, which has been considered as a confirmation of the aqueous connection of the two seas, is nothing else than the lake of Bolcheretzkoi, which still exists.

Supposition of a subterraneous communication.

But what becomes, it may be asked, of all the water which so many rivers pour into the Caspian Sea? Do they flow into two subterraneous communications which connect this sea with the Persian Gulf, and which some travellers pretend to have seen?‡ Tunnels of this kind have, at all times, been considered by the judicious as purely imaginary.§ The willow-leaves found in the Persian Gulf do not require to come from Ghilan or any other part of the Caspian shore, the banks of the Euphrates being sufficient to furnish them. The waters of the Caspian Sea, like those of the Ocean, give off their superfluity by evaporation. This evaporation has been considered as established by the extreme humidity of the atmosphere in Daghistan, Shirwan, Ghilan, and Mazanderân; but no such phenomena as these are required for the demonstration. Every person

* Olivier, Voyage en Perse, V. p. 227. &c.

† See the account of Greece, in a subsequent volume of this work.

‡ Struy's Travels, p. 126, (German edition of, 1678.) P. Avril, Voyages in diverses etats d'Europe et d'Asie, p. 73.

§ Kæmpfer Amænit. Exot. p. 254.

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embued with a slight knowledge of chemistry knows that, while the air becomes charged with the moisture which it imbibes by evaporation, it continues to appearance dry, that is, it retains a disposition to imbibe more rather than to deposite what it contains, till the impregnation reaches a certain degree of strength, or till a certain degree of cold is communicated to it. The circumstances required for the deposition take place at a considerable height in the atmosphere, and most particularly on the summits of high mountains. The rains and the dews thus formed fill the springs and the rivers, and maintain a constant circulation of the same water travelling from the heights to the seas by the rivers along the surface, and from the seas to the high lands, through the less obvious, but not less certain route of the atmosphere.

Shores.

The shores of this great Sea are, on the east, formed by steep heights; on the south they are partly skirted with marshy flats; on the west and north by downs of sand. The bottom is strewed with shells, which are partly crumbled, and partly embodied with the rocky strata. Chalk, sandstone, and pyrites, are the prevailing minerals. The shores are obscured, and the mouths of the rivers concealed by prodigious crops of reeds and rushes.

Nature of its Waters.

Round the mouths of the rivers the water is fresh, but becomes moderately salt towards the middle of the sea, though less so than that of the ocean. In addition to the usual ingredients of sea water, it contains a considerable quantity of sulphuric acid, which is obtained from it in union with soda, that is in the state of Glauber's salt.* The north-west winds are said to diminish the saltness, and to increase the bitterness of the water. The powerful phosphorescence of the thick muddy waters of the Caspian Sea is remarked by Pallas. The black colour which they assume at a great distance from the shore is nothing more than the effect of the depth, and owing to the same optical cause which makes the ocean appear comparatively dark

* Gmelin, Voyage III. 261—267.

nd blue instead of light green, in deep places where the olour of the bottom does not intermix itself with the natu- al colour of the water.*

Its northern gulfs are often frozen. The shores are fre- uented by great numbers of aquatic birds. The sea it- elf abounds in fish. The sturgeon (*Accipenser sturio*) the principal object of its fisheries. From 300,000 to 00,000 are sometimes caught in a year. But for delicate ating the sterlet (*Accipenser ruthery*) is preferred; and is from the starred surgeon (*Accipenser stellatus*, called the Russian language *sewnige*) that the best caviare and he strongest isinglas are obtained. A million and a half f these fish, taken in a year, are valued at a million of ubles (L.158,330.) There is also the *Accipenser huso*, he *beluga* of the Russians. This fish attains an enormous ize, and one is a heavy cart-load for three horses. It is lso found in the lake Aral, the Black Sea, the Danube, nd in the great rivers of Siberia, down to the size of the ena. In one year 100,000 of them have been caught n the Caspian, amounting in value to 340,500 roubles† L.53,000.) This sea contains a species of seals not yet well etermined. The species of shells and sea plants found in t are not numerous.‡

Birds. Fish. Seals.

The islands of this sea are noticed in the descriptions of he countries to which they belong. Generally speaking, hose that have any elevation have no water and no vege- ation. The low islands are often mere sandbanks sur- ounded with reeds. There are very few deep and secure arbours; and as the winds are liable to sudden changes, he navigation is, on the whole, dangerous. Badku is in- eed the only harbour in which a vessel can ride with safety n stormy weather.

Islands.

It would serve little purpose to enumerate all the names which have been given to this sea. The Caspian is one of he most ancient, and was probably derived from the word

Different names of this sea.

* Kæmpfer, Amœnit. Exot. p. 259. Compare Petreius Chronic. Folio 120.

† Georgi, Descriptiou de la Russie, p. 1902, &c. 1969, &c.

‡ Gmelin, Voyage, III. 233—257.

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Kasp, a name once given to Caucasus. This name is not only common to the Greek and Latin languages, but enters into the Georgian, the Armenian, and the Syriac.* The Jewish rabbis and Peritsol call it the Dead Sea. The Turkish denomination for it, Khoosgoon Denghizi, is variously translated, but no probable etymology is assigned. The Byzantines and the Arabians call it the Sea of Khozares, after a powerful nation; and the Russian annalists knew it in the tenth century under the name of *Gualenskoi* or *Shwalenskoi-More*, after the Shwalis or Slavonian people, not much known, that lived on the Wolga.† In the maps of the middle age, the name Mar di Sala is applied to it, which the learned Wahl translates Sea of Salt; but it is perhaps rather derived from the town of Sara or Saray, the capital of Kaptchak, which in some maps is called Sala. There would be no end to the enumeration of names taken from adjacent provinces, such as the Hyrcanian Sea, and many others. The name given to it in the Zenda-Vesta is, however, worthy of remark. That apocryphal work, which is full of old traditions, calls this sea *Tchekaêt Daêti*, or the "great water of the judgment." Perhaps Noah's flood, as described in some of the Eastern traditions, might have a connection with a sinking of the earth, which had destroyed the inhabitants of an extensive country, and converted it into this remarkable sea.

Discussion on the mouth of the Oxus.

Having thus traced the geographical history of the Caspian Sea, let us take some notice of a discussion naturally attached to it. This consists in a question famous in the annals of geography, Did the river Oxus or Gihon once flow into this sea?

General mistake of the ancients.

Those readers who peruse the works of the Greek and Roman geographers in a superficial manner will perceive a considerable unanimity among them on the course and termination of the Oxus. It is described as running from

* Wahl. Asien. I. 679, &c.

† Busching, Magazin, vol. XVI. p. 287—348.

ast to west, and falling into the Caspian Sea. This is hat Strabo and Pliny always suppose to be the fact, and hat Ptolemy expressly asserts. But there are various rcumstances which divest this unanimity among authors f its imposing character. In the first place, the extension hich these geographers give to the Caspian Sea in an asterly direction, and their silence with regard to the lake ral, lead us to believe that they considered that lake as a art of the Caspian Sea, and that, in speaking of the junc-on of the Oxus with the Caspian Sea, they meant by the tter the lake Aral. This will appear evident to any person ho, with a map before him, reads that passage of Strabo, which, after describing the Oxus and the Ochus, he af-rms that the Iaxartes (the modern Syr-Daria) also flowed to the Caspian: a termination which the course of that ver rendered at all times impossible.* Another of the ncient writers, Pomponius Mela, gives a description of e Oxus quite conformable to the present geography of e surrounding places. Instead of merely saying that its ourse is from east to west, (a mode of description which as led so many to conceive that time has altered its direc-on,) he says that, after running westward, it takes a north-rly direction, and falls into the Scythian Sea.† From this ccount, it must then, as it does now, have fallen into the ke Aral, which was considered by the authors whom Mela llowed as a gulf of the northern or Scythian ocean. The rder in which the Oxus is named along with other rivers y Dionysius Periegeta shows that, though he makes it un into the Caspian Sea, he places its mouth in Sogdiana r Chorasmia, and not in the country of the Derbices, who ved near the bay of Balkan on the Caspian Sea,‡ showing

* "Ὁ Ιαξαρτης ενδιδωσι τε ὁμοιως (Οξω και Οχω) εις το Κασπιον," lib. xi.

† "Iaxartes et Oxos per deserta Scythiæ ex Sogdianorum regionibus in Scy-icum exeunt. Hic, aliquandiu ad occasum ab oriente currens juxta Dahas rimum inflectitur, cursuque ad septentrionem converso, inter Amardos et æsicas os aperit.

‡ Dion. Perieg. v. 747.

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that he was acquainted with the northerly course of this river.

Testimony of Patroclus.

A very important passage of Patroclus, quoted by Strabo, proves more clearly that the mouth of the Oxus was exactly in the same situation as it is now. "Some say that the Ochus runs through Bactriana, others make it run along the frontier of that country. The latter consider it as distinct from the Oxus to its termination, and lying farther south, although both fall into the sea in Hyrcania. The former, allowing that these rivers are different in their origin, maintain that they join, and that the bed of the Oxus is often six or seven stadia in breadth. It is at least certain that the Iaxartes is, from its rise to its mouth, different from the Oxus, although it runs into the same sea.* Patroclus says that their mouths are about eighty farsangs distant from each other; but the Persian farsang is with some sixty stadia, with others thirty, and with a few forty."

Distances between the mouths of the Oxus and Iaxartes.

When we measure with a pair of compasses the present distance between the most southerly mouth of the Iaxartes or Syr-Daria, and the most easterly of the Oxus or Gihon, we find it 2 degrees 20 minutes, equivalent to 2592 stadia (allowing 1111⅓ stadia to a degree.) Taking the farsang at thirty stadia, the distance according to Patroclus would be 2400 stadia, which is precisely the number given by Eratosthenes, quoted by Strabo a little before. Thus the ancient and modern distances nearly agree. This correspondence will appear the more surprising, if we examine the distance taken along the shores of the lake Aral. It is found to be 3320 stadia, or eighty-three fansangs, of forty

* Pliny, lib. vi. c. 13, in giving the same passage of Eratosthenes, says "Ad ostium Zoni fluminis quatuor MDCC stad. Ab eo ad ostium Iaxartis MCCC. Quæ summa efficit quindecies centena LXXV millia." The passage is certainly corrupted. It has been proposed to read 2400 stadia for the distance between the Zonus and Iaxartes. The name Zonas is somewhat curious. It is a corruption of Zihon, the name which the people of the east have always given to the river Oxus.

stadia. Finally, if we take for our points the most westerly mouth of the Gihon, and the most northerly of the Syr-Darïa, we shall have eighty-two farsangs of sixty stadia. Thus the three marks given by Patroclus, or rather by the Persians whom he had consulted, concur to shew that the two mouths of the Oxus and Iaxartes were at the same distance as at present, consequently both emptied themselves into the lake Aral.

Conclusion.

Thus it appears that the Greeks and Romans had no positive notions of their own respecting the mouth of the Oxus. But the traditions which they had collected, and some geographical data which they had obtained, give us every reason to conclude that this river had always the same course and termination as now.

Opinion of the Arabian and Persian geographers.

The Orientalists undoubtedly furnish some information to those who can peruse their works in the original languages. Ibn-Haukal, and after him Abulfeda, describe the course of the Gihon, agreeably to our modern maps, as terminating in the lake of Khowarezm, which we call the sea or lake of Aral. Abulfeda quotes, but without acquiescing in its truth, the assertion of Ramsol Mamoori, according to whom one branch of the Gihon should run into the Green Sea;* that is, the Persian Gulf. The Turkish geographer Hadgi-Khalfah says, after Hamdoulah a Persian geographer, that an arm of the Oxus takes a direction towards the Caspian Sea, crossing in a rapid stream the valley of Kherlava. The traveller Abdoul Kerym, who visited these places in 1730 and 1740, affirms that the Gihon, "far from arriving at Mazanderan (Hyrcania,) as some authors had said, did not even reach the lake Khowarezm, being entirely expended by frequent outlets for the irrigation of the fields."†

European travellers.

The European travellers of the 16th and 17th centuries appear not to have observed the facts with their own eyes,

* Abulfeda Reiskii ap. Busching Magas. Geogr. iv. 169. Ibn-Haukal, Oriental Geography, by Ouseley, p. 241, &c. 265.

† Collection des Voyages, par M. Langles, i. p. 55, &c.

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but all through the distorting medium of Ptolemy, otherwise they could not have fallen into so many contradictions. Hanway, Bruce, and Jenkinson, pretended to have found a dried arm of the Oxus, but which had at a former period conveyed its waters, or at least a part of them, to the Caspian Sea. But one of these gentlemen, Bruce, makes the mouth of this branch near Sellisoure, in 42° 30′ of latitude, while another places it in the great bay of Balkan, in 39°. The large Russian Atlas, lately published, fixes it in this last situation. Nor is there any agreement about the situation where this arm of the river separates from the present line. Some place it at Hazarasp, others at Vazirkend, while some go as far down as Urghenz. Add to this, that the epoch of the supposed stopping of this branch by the Tartars is an equal subject of uncertainty, and of contradictory assertions. The Arabian writers whom we have just mentioned, do not admit any modern change of this kind. It must have been prior to Ibn-Haukal, in the 10th century. Yet the Russians say that it took place about the year 1719, and was intended to present an obstruction to the progress of their arms.

Russian traditions.

Expedition of Beckewitz.

The following memorable transactions were the consequences of this belief, so firmly maintained by that nation.* Peter the Great had received some accounts of gold being contained in the sands of the Kisil-Daria, a river which falls into the Gihon from the east, and is sometimes confounded with the latter. He resolved to take possession of a country where he hoped to find mines of wealth, and through which he might also open a commercial communication with India. Navigators were sent to find out the mouth of the Kisil-Daria, which was supposed to run into the Caspian. A river was found, perhaps the Tedzen, which was taken for the Kisil-Daria. The learned decided that it was the Oxus, and an expedition was resolved on and prepared. Alexander Beckewitz, son of a Circas-

* Muller, Sammlung Russicher geschichten, vol. vii.

sian prince, captain of the Czar's guard, acquainted with the Tartar language, had a body of 3000 men placed under his command, to proceed to the pretended mouths of the Kisil-Daria, and to take possession of the adjacent countries. The Tartars, uneasy to see the Russians making so many visits to this place, had, it was said, turned aside the course of the river, by damming it up with a strong dyke, and conducting the water in three canals to the lake Aral. Beckewitz arrived with his army, and searched in vain for the river by which he hoped to ascend to Khiwa. The khan met him with a numerous army, but was soon defeated by means of the European artillery. Mortified and rendered desperate by this defeat, the khan sent to inquire of the Russian general what were the complaints of Russia, and what sacrifices were required of him. Beckewitz, full of the notion of the artificial change of direction which had been given to the Kisil-Daria, demands of the khan that he should open the dykes which prevented the river from running into the Caspian sea, and thus restore it to its old course. The Tartar prince replied, that this operation was beyond his power, and that it was impossible to close up the channels in which the river followed its new direction. Beckewitz then proposed to execute the project with his own men, provided their safety were insured by the delivery of hostages. To this proposal the Tartars willingly agreed, and the hostages were given. These, at the same time, acted as guides to the Russian army, which marched five days towards the supposed dry bed of the river. In every quarter they met with nothing but small puddles of stagnant water. The soldiers were exhausted with thirst. The guides, with the most perfidious intentions, proposed to the Russians that they should divide themselves into small parties, and go in different directions. The Russian commander was under the necessity of following the advice of his enemies. The small Russian army was no sooner dispersed in these unknown deserts, than the Tartars, who had watched them,

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attacked their feeble detachments on all sides. Some were put to the sword, and the rest reduced to slavery. The unfortunate Beckewitz was taken into the presence of the khan, and hacked to pieces. His skin was dried, and made into the cover of a drum, which was preserved at Khiwa as a trophy, to testify to posterity the disastrous issue of an expedition so ignorantly planned, and conducted with so little prudence. The news of these tragical events were taken to Russia by the soldiers who had been left in the fort of Karaganskoi, and saved themselves on board the vessels which had brought them.

Observations.

There is nothing in these transactions to justify any change of opinion about the ancient course of the Oxus. It is not probable that a weak Tartar nation had either any adequate motive for changing the course of the river, or the means of effecting an operation of such prodigious labour. But they had sufficiently strong motives for allowing the Russians to persevere in their mistaken ideas and vain researches.

If the question were considered as deserving of further research, precision would be best attained by means of a well-informed person travelling by land, with a barometer in his hand, from Guriew to Astrabad, along the east side of the Caspian Sea. The Russian maps lay down a series of sandy valleys between the present course of the Oxus and the Caspian. But we have no satisfactory account of the authorities on which these delineations are founded. Georgi, in his description of Russia, and Gmelin in his travels, represent this country as occupied by a chain of mountains reaching from the steppe of Kirguis to Astrabad, separating at every point the basin of the lake Aral from that of the Caspian Sea.

BOOK XXXV.

AFGHANISTAN.

THE country comprehended under this name is generally considered as a part of Persia, and distinguished by the appellation of Eastern Persia; but both in its physical, civil, and political character, it is entitled to a separate description. At present it forms an independent kingdom, and holds in subjection some surrounding countries belonging at other times to Persia, Independent Tartary (or Turkestan,) and India.

Names. It goes under the names of the kingdom of Caubul from the capital, sometimes Caubulistan, sometimes the kingdom of Kandahar, from another capital. In former times it was denominated the kingdom of Ghuznee, or Ghiznee, from another city, for a similar reason.

Boundaries. This kingdom varies in its boundaries, being in itself unsettled, and thus prevented from exerting its natural strength in retaining some of its most remote dependencies. At present its utmost extent is from the west of Herat, in East Long. 62°, to the eastern boundary of Cashmere, in Long. 77°, and from the mouth of the Indus in North Lat. 24°, to the upper part of the Oxus in Lat. 37°. In these countries the Khootba or church-service is used in which the king of the Afghans is prayed for, although the degrees of subjection of the different localities are various. The empire comprehends Afghanistan properly so called, Seistan, part of Khorasan, and of Mekrân, Balk, Kuttore, Kandahar, Sind and Cashmere, together with a portion of Lahore, and the greater part of Mooltan.

The whole population is estimated at fourteen millions, consisting of the following nations:

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Population.

Afghans*	4,300,000
Belooches	1,000,000
Tartars	1,200,000
Persians (including Tanjiks)	1,500,000
Indians of different races	5,700,000
Miscellaneous tribes	300,000

On the north it is bounded by the range of Hindoo Coosh, or Hindoo Coh, *i. e.* the Indian Caucasus, separating it from Independent Tartary, but on the western part of the line it extends beyond this range to the territory of Balk.

Mountains. This chain is a continuation of the Himmaleh mountains on the east, which at Cashmere lose the name of Himmaleh, and take that of Hindoo Coosh, from a peak in the neighbourhood of Caubul, to which that appellation more strictly belongs. The range is perpetually covered with snow, as far west as the peak; beyond this the height diminishes, and the snow is melted in summer. That part of the chain is called Paropamisus. From the place where the Indus issues from Hindoo Coosh, in latitude 35°, and longitude 73°, this river passes through mountains to latitude 33°. After this it has a plain on each side, all the way to the sea; but at a little distance to the west of this river, the mountain range of Solimân extends as far south as latitude 29°. This range sends three branches to the east. The most northerly of these is called the range of 34°, from its latitude at its point of detachment; another is called the Salt range, being chiefly composed of rock salt; both of these extend considerably to the east of the Indus, into that part of India called the Punjaub. The third does not reach that river.

From the southern termination of the Solimân range, a chain of hills runs nearly west to the table-land of Kelât. On the south-west it has lower hills included in Mekrân.

* The reader will remark the great difference between this estimate, and that which is given in the author's Table at p. 306, which proceeded on authority far inferior to that of Mr. Elphinstone's work on the kingdom of Caubul, from which the greater part of the present book is taken.—TR.

If a line is drawn from the south end of the Solimân chain to Herât, at the western extremity, we shall, with the Hindoo Coosh mountains, and a line parallel to the Indus on the west, form a triangle, which comprehends the greater part of the mountainous country of Afghanistân. The first line will be more correct, if, instead of being straight, it has a convexity to the south-west. The hills here included vary in their direction and elevation. All the considerable ones have snow lying on them during part of the year, and are generally separated by fertile valleys. Between the Hindoo Coosh and the valley of the Caubul river, there are three parallel ranges of mountains successively lower, and passing under different local names, some of them very precipitous, and inhabited by different tribes, or subdivisions of tribes. In the eastern part the hills on the two sides of that river approximate; and the river runs among hills and rocks. Different valleys on the left and right, that is, the west and east, open into that of the Caubul. That part of this country, including hills and valleys which lie on the north of the Caubul river, is called Cohistân. To the west of Cohistân is the Paropamisan chain, which is less lofty, but intricate and little known in its minute topography, from being difficult of access. Its eastern part, inhabited by the Hazaureh tribes, is cold and rugged; the western, inhabited by the Eimâks, is somewhat better cultivated, and has wider valleys, but still poor and wild.

Opposite to a southerly projection and high peak of the Hindoo Coosh range called Coond, and on the south of the Caubul river, is a high peak, called Suffaid Coh, which is a sort of centre from which different ranges of mountains extend, chiefly belonging to the Solimân chain; the descent from which to the Indus on the east, is steep and sudden. On the west it is also sudden, but less considerable, the land itself being higher. The Soliman range consists of a hard black stone at its highest part; next a hard red stone; then a friable grey sand stone. The branches running west from this range are more intricate and less

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known than the easterly ones already mentioned. Different ranges extend from the north-west of the plateau of Kelât to the east, some inclining northerly, and others a little to the south.

Rivers.

The Indus is the most conspicuous river connected with Afghanistan. A great proportion of the water which falls on that country, flows in different streams from the west into this great river; and the Indus is almost entirely more or less under the Afghan dominion after it crosses the great mountain range in which it divides Himaleh from Hindoo Coosh. The Abba Seen and the Booringdoo, proceeding from the Hindoo Coosh, and running in general a southerly course, flow into the Indus on the west side. Kaushkhaur River is another which, like the Indus, arises a great way north of the same range, and flows straight south parallel to the Beloot-Tagh range; passes the Coond with great violence on the east, and falls into the Caubul. Higher up, the river Caubul receives various other tributaries from the valleys, and carries all their waters finally into the Indus, a little above Attock. Lower down, the Indus receives several small streams from the west, then the Kooroom, and, farther south, the Gomul, the waters of which, however, though its course is long, are chiefly expended in irrigating the land of Damaun along the eastern base of the Soliman range. The greatest of the rivers which water the west of Afghanistân is the Helmund or Etymander, called in some maps the Hendmind. It runs 200 miles through the Paropamisan range; then issues into the cultivated plains of the Doorânee territory; soon enters a sandy desert, and terminates in the lake of Seistan. Its course is generally west by south. Every where within half a mile or a mile, its banks are cultivated and fertile. Its stream is considerable, though forded for the greater part of the year through almost the whole of its course. In the dry season, it is breast deep where it leaves the mountains, and at the time of the melting of the snows is deep and rapid. It receives some very important tributaries, chiefly on its left or south side, viz. the Urghundaub, near which is the city of Kandahar;

Indus.

Etymander.

the Turuk, and the Shorundân, which join the Urgundaub. On the north side, it receives the Khaushrood. Farther west is the Furra-rood, 200 miles long, which appears to flow directly into the lake, or to be lost in the sands. The Oxus rises within the subjugated territory of Balk, before it crosses Independent Tartary to fall into the lake Aral.

Oxus.

The lower part of the plain of the Indus is called the Sind, or Lower Sind. It is subject to a native prince, who is tributary to the king of Caubul. From Shikarpoor to Sungur, it is called Upper Sind, which is more directly under his government. Above Sungur is Damaun, a name which is sometimes limited to the skirts of the hills; at other times includes the plain inhabited by various tribes. At the upper part of the Indus, within the Afghan territory, is the country of the tribe called Yoosofzyes. The plain of Peshawer occupies the open part of the banks of the Caubul river, not far from its mouth, but divided from it by the mountains of the last mentioned tribe. The northern hills by which this plain is bounded are covered with pines. On the right bank of the river, which does not, like the left, belong to Cohistan, is, first, the country of the Kheyberees, a very predatory tribe; and farther west, the rich plain of Jellalabad. To the west of the plain of Peshawer, is that of Caubul, the north side of which is in Cohistan; the south part of it is spoken of as a most enchanting country. Here is Ghiznee, or the country of the Wurduk tribe, containing one of the ancient capitals; and farther south, is the lake Abistandeh, which has no outlet, but, receiving various rivers, forms a basin peculiar to itself. To the south of this, and somewhat to the west, are the valleys of the Turnuk and the Urghessaun: the former is 60 miles broad, and tolerably fertile; the latter generally poor, though very rich in the immediate vicinity of Kandahar. The upper part of both valleys is inhabited by the Ghiljie tribes; the remaining and most extensive part, from Kelâti-Ghiljie to Herât, by the Dooranees,—the tribe considered as at present the ruling one, as the king of Caubul belongs to

Division.

Plain of Peshawer.

Ghiznee.

Dooranee country.

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it. It is the largest tribe of the Afghans. To the south of all this tract, are the valleys opening on the river Gomul and the intervening mountains. Sirufza, Oorghoon, and Wauneh, are the valleys descending in stages to the Gomul, which bounds them on the south. From the south side, the valleys of Pisheen, Burshore, and Zhobe, connect themselves with the Gomul. Many other subordinate districts diversify the face of this unequal country.

Climate.

The north-eastern part of Afghanistan participates in the Indian monsoons or rainy season, but greatly modified and very distinct from that incessant and drenching rain which prevails in the southern parts of India, where the precipitation of the moisture begins on the ocean, and extends interiorly, gradually losing its decided character. The monsoon commences on the Malabar coast in May, and reaches Delhi by the end of June. It prevails more among the mountains than in the flats of the eastern tributaries of the Indus, called the Punjaub. The hills and valleys of Cashmere have their share of the rains. They diminish as they go west, and in the valley of Peshawer the monsoon only appears in some clouds and showers. In the valley of Caubul it does not extend beyond Lughman, but, in the southerly projection of Hindoo Coosh, called the Coond, it forms the principal rains of the year. In the south of Afghanistan the influence of the monsoon is felt as far west as the western boundary of Mekrân. There are other rains or snows which fall about Christmas, which, in the greater part of the country, are of more importance to husbandry, especially that portion which is in the form of snow. The rains, strictly so called, are less important than those of spring, which are said to come from the west. The climate varies greatly in different parts. Mr. Elphinstone found that of the plain of Peshawer in February, where the mission from India arrived in 1809, to be cold in the night, but agreeable during the day. There was frequent hoar-frost as late as the 8th of March, but by the middle of the month the sun was disagreeably hot as early as eight in the morning. The approach of spring was very rapid.

Some violent hot winds blew in June, at least in the countries adjoining on the east, where the mission had now gone. The cold even of winter is not very severe, and some of the Indian plants are in leaf all the year. At Caubul and Kandahar the summers are cooler, and the inhabitants exclaim against the heat of Peshawer. The inequality of the elevation is accompanied throughout with a corresponding inequality of climate. The winter of Damaun, on the west of the Indus, is agreeable, being colder than in any part of Indostan. But the summer is insupportably hot. In the higher table land on the south, as Pisheen and the west part of the Caukir country, it is cool, and in winter thin films of ice are formed on water in the night. Kandahar has a hot climate. No snow falls there in winter, and the little ice that is formed on the edges of streams melts before midday. The samoon winds are not unknown in that quarter. To the north and to the east of Kandahar the cold increases. At Ghiznee, which is the coldest part of the plain country in the Afghan dominions, the severity of the temperature is sometimes excessive; and there are traditions of that city having been twice destroyed by falls of snow in which all the inhabitants were buried. The prevailing winds of Afghanistan are from the west.

Wild animals.

Of animals, the lion is very rare, though common both in Persia and in the adjoining parts of India. Tigers and leopards are common to the east of the Soliman range, and the former are found in all parts of the kingdom. Wolves abound every where, and forming into troops, are formidable to cattle, and sometimes to men. Hyænas, jackalls, foxes, and bares, are also abundant. The bears are common in the woody mountains, but seldom quit their haunts except when tempted by sugar-cane plantations. Wild boars are rare, though common in Persia and India. The wild ass is confined to the Dooranee country, in the basin of the Helmund. Wild sheep and goats are common in the eastern hills. There are also porcupines, hedgehogs, and monkies, the last only in the north-east parts. Moles are only found in Cashmere. The king has a few

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elephants, but they are brought from India. The breed of horses is generally indifferent, the best that are used in the country being brought from India, but some excellent ones are bred at Herat and Balk. Dromedaries are the principal beasts of burden. The Bactrian camel is comparatively rare. Buffaloes, though rather rare, are found in many parts. The ox is everywhere used for ploughing except in Balk. It has a hump like that of India. No herds of oxen are kept except round the lake Seistan. The live stock of the pastoral tribes consists chiefly of sheep of the Persian kind, called Doomba, distinguished by their broad flat tails composed of fat. Goats are very common, and some breeds have long and curiously twisted horns. There are excellent grey-hounds and pointers, exactly resembling those of England. There are two or three sorts of eagles, and many kinds of hawks, some of which are used in faulconry. Herons, cranes, storks, wild ducks, geese, swans, partridges, quails, and other winged game, are in great abundance. The serpents are mostly harmless; there are no crocodiles; turtles and tortoises are common. Flights of locusts have been known to occasion famines, but they are rare. Bees abound, but are only domesticated in Cashmere.

Domestic animals.

Birds.

Reptiles.

Vegetables. Most of our European trees are found everywhere. Few species peculiar to India grow to the east of the Soliman range, and none to the west. Pines are the most common species in the mountains, one of which, called the Jelgoozeh, is remarkable for cones larger than artichokes, and containing seeds like pistachio nuts. Two kinds of oaks, cedars, a gigantic cypress, walnuts, and wild olives, are among the natives of the mountains. Birch, holly, and hazel, are known, also the mastic and the pistachio tree in the mountains. The mulberry, the tamarisk, and the willow, are the most common wild trees in the plains. The barberry, and other berry-bearing bushes are common, and a plant called Arghawaun, which is a sort of *anemone*, but so tall as to be almost entitled to the appellation of a tree. Roses, jessamines, poppies, narcissuses,

hyacinths, tuberoses, stock, and others of our common flowers, are cultivated in gardens, and many of them grow wild. Gold is only found in the streams which flow from the Hindoo Coosh. Silver is found in small quantities in the country of the Caufirs, north of that range. There are mines of lead and antimony in the Paropamisus, and of lead in the southern mountains, bordering on Beloochistan. Minerals.

The character of the Afghân nation differs from that of all their Asiatic neighbours, being distinguished by a manly spirit of independence. In order to give a picture of the nation in a manner both striking and impartial, Mr. Elphinstone exhibits them in two points of view; first, as they would appear to a person transported to them from England, without having had his habits of feeling at all modified by the intervention of Turkey, Persia, or Tartary, and then as they appear to an Englishman directly from India. The former would discover a wild assemblage of hills and wastes, unmarked by inclosures, and destitute of all the elaborate productions of human industry and refinement. He would find the towns few, and far distant from each other, and would look in vain for inns and other conveniences which a traveller would meet with in the wildest parts of Britain. Yet he would be delighted with the fertility and populousness of particular plains and valleys, where he would see the productions of Europe mingled in profusion with those of the torrid zone, and the land laboured with an industry and a judgment nowhere surpassed. He would see the inhabitants following their flocks in tents, or assembled in villages, to which the terraced roofs and mud walls would give an appearance entirely new. He would be struck at first with the high and somewhat harsh features of the people, their sun-burned countenances, their long beards, loose garments, and shaggy mantles of skins. He would notice the absence of courts of justice, and an organized police. He would be surprised at the fluctuation and instability of the civil institutions. He would find it difficult to comprehend how a native could subsist in such disorder, and would pity those who were compelled to pass their

Inhabitants.

Compared to Europeans.

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days in such a scene, and whose minds were trained by their unhappy situation to fraud and violence, rapine, deceit, and revenge. Yet he would scarcely fail to admire their martial and lofty spirit, their hospitality, and their bold and simple manners, equally removed from the suppleness of a citizen, and the awkward rusticity of a clown; and would probably, before long, discover among so many qualities that excited his disgust, the rudiments of many virtues.

But an English traveller from India would view them with a more favourable eye. He would be pleased with the cold climate, elevated by the wild and novel scenery, and delighted by meeting with many of the productions of his native land. He would first be struck with the thinness of the fixed population, and then with the appearance of the people; not fluttering, like the Indians, in white muslins, while half their bodies are naked, but soberly and decently attired in dark-coloured woollen clothes, and wrapt up in brown mantles, or large sheep-skin cloaks. He would admire their strong and active forms, fair complexions, and European features; their industry and enterprise; the hospitality, sobriety, and contempt of pleasure, which appear in all their habits; and, above all, the energy and independence of their character. In India, he would have left a country where every movement originates in the government or its agents, and where the people absolutely go for nothing; and he would now find himself among a nation where the control of the government is scarcely felt, and where every man appears to pursue his own inclinations, undirected and unrestrained. Amidst the stormy independence of this mode of life, he would regret the ease and security in which the state of India, and even the indolence and timidity of its inhabitants, enable most parts of that country to repose. He would meet with many productions of art and nature, which do not exist in India; but, in general, he would find the arts of life less advanced, and many of the luxuries of Indostan unknown. His impression of his new acquaintances would be on the whole favourable;

Compared to the Indians.

although he would feel that, without having lost the ruggedness of a barbarous nation, they were tainted with the vices common to all Asiatics. Yet he would reckon them virtuous compared with the people to whom he had been accustomed; would be inclined to regard them with interest and kindness, and could scarcely deny them a portion of his esteem. Both these descriptions of travellers, when they began to investigate their political constitution, would be alike perplexed with its apparent inconsistencies and contradictions, and with the union which it exhibits of turbulent independence and gross oppression. But the former would perhaps be most struck with the despotic pretensions of the general government; and the latter, with the democratic licence which prevails in the government of the tribes.

Origin and history.

The origin of the name Afghan is uncertain. It is only through the Persian that it is known to the people themselves; and it is probably modern. Their own name for their nation is Pooshtoon, in the plural Pooshtanneh, pronounced Pooktauneh by the Bordooranee tribes, whence probably the name Patan, by which they are known in India. They were very early in possession of the Solimán mountains, and, in the ninth century, those which form the north-east part of their present territory. During the government of the descendants of Genghiz and of Tamerlane, they retained their independence, when Bauber came among them, and, beginning his career by the conquest of Caubul, laid the foundation of the Mogul empire, which after his death was transferred to Delhi. In the beginning of the 18th century, the Afghân tribe of the Ghiljie founded an empire which included all Persia. This was overthrown by Nadir Shah, who annexed the greater part of Afghanistân to Persia. On his death, the present monarchy was founded. The Afghâns consider themselves as descended from Afghaun, the son of Irmia or Berkia, son of Saul king of Israel; and their national histories begin with relating the transactions of the Jews from Abraham down to the captivity. This part of their history agrees with that given by other Mahometans, and

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differs but little from that of Scripture, only that it is interspersed with some wild fables. After the captivity, they allege that a part of the children of Afghân withdrew to the mountains of Ghore, or Gaoor, (Paropamisus,) and part to the neighbourhood of Mecca in Arabia. All this, however, rests on vague tradition. Their race always preserved the knowledge of the unity of God; and on the appearance of Mahomet his greatest prophet, obeyed his invitation, and marched to the aid of the true faith, under Kyse, afterwards surnamed Abdoolreshid. The Arabian historians, however, give no countenance to any part of this narrative. The Afghân historians themselves furnish proofs of their inaccuracy, by making Saul the forty-fifth in descent from Abraham, which is inconsistent with the sacred writings, and Kyse only the thirty-seventh from Abraham, in a period of 1600 years.

Political state.

The Afghâns have many subdivisions of tribes, and numerous chiefs called Khauns: their attachments are rather to their clan and the public good, than to the chief. He presides in the Jeergas, or deliberative councils of his tribe or clan. In the administration of justice, the Mahometan law is adhered to, but private revenge is much practised and countenanced by general usage, although the Moollahs, or ministers of religion, who assist at the regular tribunals, declaim against it. The king is the natural head of the Dooraunee tribe, the greatest, bravest, and most civilised of the whole; he levies fixed proportions of troops, or money, or both, from each tribe, for the common defence. The whole nation, however, is seldom unanimous on any general plan of movements, the particular interest of each *ooloos*, or tribe, occupying its chief attention. The king's authority is greater over the plains, and about towns, principally inhabited by a class of people called Taujiks, who are not considered as of Afghân descent, and are not numbered among the tribes. The foreign provinces are also under greater subjection; and from these quarters he is enabled to raise a revenue and maintain an army independent of the tribes. There are some points of strong

resemblance between the situation of the Afghân country and that of Scotland in former times; the clans nearest to the royal residence yield a precarious submission, while the remote ones are independent; and the nobility most connected with the court are powerful and factious. The only point of difference is, that the Scottish chiefs were despotic, while the Afghân tribes are generally under a republican government. The king appoints some judges under the name of Cauzees, who share with the jeergas of the tribes in the administration of justice, although without any concert or mutual connection.

Marriages.

The Afghâns purchase their wives; consequently women, though generally well treated, are in some measure considered as property. Courtships are conducted through the medium of the relations of the parties; and the marriage contract is drawn up by the Cauzee. In the country the women generally go unveiled, the intercourse between the sexes is less distant, and marriages more frequently originate in the attachment of the parties. The women of the upper classes are completely secluded, but have all the comforts and luxuries provided for them that can be afforded. Those of the poor do the work of the house, but they do not engage indiscriminately in the labours of the men, like the Indian women, who even labour among masons and bricklayers.

Love.

The sentiment of love in all its fervour and fidelity is frequent among the Afghâns. Besides numerous elopements, it is common for a man to plight his faith to a particular girl, and then set off to a remote town, or to India, to acquire the money which must be paid to obtain her from her friends, and which, however favourably disposed, they cannot in honour dispense with. Many of the Afghân songs and tales relate to love.

Education.

The Mollahs, or officers of religion, are the regular instructors of the youth. Some learn no more than their set forms of prayer, and other ceremonies of their religion, with some passages of the Koran. The next step is to learn Arabic, or at least to read the Koran, but often without understanding it. There is a teacher in every village or camp, who is maintained by certain allotments of land. In

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towns, there are regular schools, in which the teacher is maintained by his scholars alone. People of decent fortune learn the Persian classics, and Arabic grammar. This last is taught in a very complicated manner, involving many other subjects, and sometimes occupies several years. A young Mollah, when sufficiently proficient in this study, goes to Peshawer, Hushtnuggur, or some other place famous for its Mollahs, and enters on logic, law, and theology. Some push their researches into ethics, metaphysics, and the system of natural philosophy known in the east, as well as history, poetry, and medicine, which last is a fashionable study for men of all professions. These often travel to distant places, and even to Bokhara, which is a great seat of Mahometan learning; but Peshawer seems, on the whole, to be the most learned city in these countries, and many more students come thither from Bokhara, than repair to that city from Peshawer. India has, in this respect, no great reputation, and Persia is avoided on account of the religious heresy of Sheeism, which is professed in that country, the Afghâns being orthodox Sonnites.

Language.

The language of the Afghâns is called Pushtoo; its origin has not been well investigated, and probably is not easily discovered. Of a large proportion of the words composing it, the roots are unknown; yet some of the words which must have been used in the earliest stages of society, or others by which they have been supplanted, belong to the Zend and Pehlewé, such as the terms for father and mother, sister and brother, and the numerals. The words connected with religion, government, and science, are mostly introduced from the Arabic, through the Persian. The Afghâns use the Persian alphabet, and generally write in the Nushk character. Having some sounds which are not represented by any Persian letters, they express them by adding particular points, or other marks to the Persian letters which come nearest to them. The language is rough but manly, and not unpleasing to an ear accustomed to oriental tongues. None of the Pushtoo authors of celebrity are more than a century and a half old, and probably none at all more than three centuries. They

have many translations from the Persian. They have some original poetry, particularly on the subjects of their national wars. Their prose authors are chiefly on theology and law; but the Persian is still their learned language. Their plans of study are strictly methodical, partaking in no degree of a miscellaneous character. A book, if read at all, must be preceded by certain others.

Religion.

The Afghân system of Islamism is the Sonnite, which is distinguished by the acknowledgment of the three first caliphs as true successors of Mahomet. They entertain a great horror against heretics, infidels and idolators. Some instances have occurred of capital punishments, inflicted at the instance of the Mollahs, on individuals of the Sheeite sect for blasphemy. But they are on the whole tolerant to those whom they reckon infidels, in their own country. The Hindoos enjoy the free exercise of their religion; their temples are unmolested, though they are forbidden all public processions, and all exhibitions of their idols. They are employed in offices of trust, and are as much at their ease as most of the other inhabitants. The Sikhs praise the Afghâns for their tolerant conduct towards them; while they are treated with contempt and aversion by the Persians. Mr. Foster, as an individual Christian, was treated rather contemptuously. The Sheeahs, or Sheeites, are more discountenanced than any other sect, as is often the case in matters of religion; those who are nearest to us in their belief are least willingly forgiven for not going the whole length of our particular creed. There is a sect called Soofees, who are a sort of enthusiastical religious philosophers, resembling Platonists or Pantheists. There is another called that of Moollah Zookee, the adherents of which renounce all belief in prophecy and revelation, and have the character of being dissolute and profligate in their lives. The Afghâns, in general, have much personal religion, and seem to be habitually occupied with pious reflections. They are very regular in performing their devotions. Their toleration does not arise from indifference, but from their considering religion as a person-

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al concern; and they are often sufficiently capable of giving credit to others for firmness of profession. Regularity in observance of the prayers and fasts is often enforced by the municipal law, and the breach of them punished by the Moohtesib, a regular officer appointed for the purpose, whose office, however, is very unpopular, and exposed to the continual reproach of corruption and partiality. The mollahs inculcate austerity of life; they often break such instruments of music as are not deemed warlike, such as lutes and fiddles; sparing drums, trumpets, and hautboys. They are in possession of the greater part of the learning of the country, and many of them are sensible and agreeable men. They are actuated by a strong corporation spirit, and often avail themselves of the prevalent superstitious respect in which they are held, to raise mobs in their own cause. Their formal curses are much dreaded. This body of men is useful in repressing many lawless passions; at the same time it prevents the advancement of society to a better state, which can only be effected by the introduction of a desire and opportunities of information independent of their influence. There are likewise some recluse persons, esteemed as saints, under the names of Dervises, Fuheers, &c. who are treated with still greater reverence, though they do not in the least interfere with civil or secular matters. These sometimes lay claim to supernatural powers or communications. The Afghâns believe in alchymy, magic, astrology, and the prophetic character of dreams; and they seek for direction in weighty concerns by turning up the Korân at random, after fasting and prayer. Sometimes, with less solemnity, they make a similar use of the poems of Hafiz, and other books, to peep into futurity.

Hospitality.

The Afghâns are remarkably hospitable. They have a peculiar custom, called *Nunnawautee*, (meaning, "I have come in,") by which a person who has a favour to ask goes to the house or tent of the man on whom it depends, and refuses to sit on his carpet, or partake of his hospitality, till he grants the required boon. This is felt

as an irresistible tie, in opposition to very strong contrary motives. A still stronger appeal is made, though not connected with the law of hospitality, when a woman sends her veil to an Afghân, and implores his assistance for herself or her family. The protection conferred by the rights of hospitality ceases when the object of it is beyond the lands of the village or tribe, and in this situation the same individual is reckoned a fair object of plunder. They attend much more, on all occasions, to the conferring of favours than to the respecting of rights. Plunder among themselves is chiefly repressed by the defensive exertions of the injured tribe. Strangers are sure to be plundered, unless they obtain a protecting escort from the tribe through whose territories they pass. Some tribes are in this particular more infamous than others. In times of political confusion, travelling is not safe on any terms, or in any part of the country. But their robberies are never aggravated by murder. A man may be killed in defence of his property, but his life is in no danger when he ceases to resist.

Manners and customs.

The houses are made of unburned brick, one story high. Their only furniture is pieces of carpet or felt, for sitting and sleeping on. Sometimes the room is surrounded with broad raised benches, called *sopha* or *suffé*. They sit cross-legged when at their ease. Their ordinary employment, when seated, is conversation; a kalioon for smoking, is passed round occasionally, and, after a whiff or two, is sent away. They are not great smokers, but much addicted to snuff, which they keep in round or oval boxes, formed of a sort of nut-shell called balaughoon without a lid, but having a hole at one end for pouring out the snuff. At first meeting, some ceremonious words, with solemn gestures, are passed, after which they are quite unrestrained and social. They delight in tales of kings, genii, and fairies. Their favourite amusement is the chace. Their dress is various; partaking of the Persian in the western, and of the Indian in the eastern parts of the country. Their mode of travelling is on horseback, at a walking

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pace. The women are carried in a sort of hampers, called cudjawas, slung over the animal's back. For women of distinction they are carried between two. The Afghâns, like the other Mahometans, have slaves brought from Africa, through Arabia; some Persians, brought from the Belooches, who have kidnapped them; and some purchased or carried off from their northern neighbours the Caufirs. The Afghâns are not so frivolous nor so habitually false as the Indians; and are perhaps more sincere, though less polished, than the Persians. The attachment which subsists in families and clans is strong and faithful; the royal families are almost the only exceptions, being frequently scenes of keen and sometimes merciless rivalry. They are proud of their descent, and fond of genealogies; grateful for favours, though irritable in cases of slights. They will do any thing that is wanted of them with much more zeal if a present is made in advance, than if it is withheld in the hope of quickening them by expectancy. No Afghân ever keeps a shop, or exercises any handicraft trade. Prohibited by their religion from taking interest for money, they are dependent on resident Hindoos as bankers. Their artificers are of the same nation, or Persians or Taujeks. These are subjected to some hardships and grievances in the towns, from the strictness of the police, which is in the hands of the Mollahs, and in some degree inquisitorial. In summer the inhabitants of the towns rise at half past three, then go to the mosque to prayer, then take a light breakfast, after which they repair to their shops. They take a luncheon at eleven, and then sleep for two hours. Their great meal is after the last prayers, and called *Shaw mee*. The food of the common people is leavened bread, rice, flesh, vegetables, sometimes cheese, and always a sort of dried curd called koroot. One of their great amusements arises from their passion for pleasure parties, in gardens, or on distant rural excursions to some of the most pleasing scenery of the country. They have often singing and playing in their houses, and delight in fighting cocks and quails. They have some forms of

Hindoos and Taujeks.

bodily exercise which they employ even in their houses, which contribute powerfully to their muscular vigour. On the whole, a degree of happiness and ease is enjoyed by the inhabitants of the towns which might appear altogether inconceivable when we consider the external circumstances in which they are placed.

The great.

The houses of the great are very magnificent and spacious; surrounded with high walls containing several courts. The halls are supported by tall wooden pillars, and Moorish arches, carved, painted, and ornamented with figures of flowers. These are often enlivened with paintings, executed in Persia. Their dress is on the Persian model. The place of honour is the corner of the room at the end opposite the entrance, and there the master sits. One side of the room is open to a garden or court, and a row of servants is drawn up out of doors, immediately below. The manners of the great are mild and plain, but dignified.

Servants.

The servants are remarkable for activity and fidelity, and are often entrusted with important secrets. Their masters send them with the most confidential messages, without taking any precaution, except that of providing for their being believed. For this purpose a ring is given, or some indifferent occurrence is referred to which is known only to the master and the person to whom the messenger is sent. The great do not get out of bed till sunrise. They read and pray for about an hour, then breakfast; after which they repair to court, where they transact business. Their amusements are hunting and hawking. They keep about them persons whose profession it is to read to them; the favourite book being the Shauh Naumeh, the great heroic poem of Ferdoosi. Chess, backgammon, and cards, are also resorted to. Their entertainments are served up with great neatness, as well as magnificence. The servants, however, snuff the candles into a tea-cup with a pair of scissars. They separate the joints of the meat with penknives, and tearing it to pieces with their hands, which have been washed immediately before, lay it on the plates before the guests. The con-

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duct of the great has a much more favourable aspect when among the people of their tribe than at court, where corruption usually prevails.

Trade.

The exports from the Afghân country to India are principally horses and poneys, furs, shawls, Mooltan chintz, madder, assafœtida, tobacco, almonds, pistachio nuts, walnuts, hazle-nuts, and fruits. The fruits are generally dried, but a great quantity fresh, being pulled before they are ripe, and carefully packed up in boxes with cotton. The imports from India are coarse cotton cloths, worn by the common people in every part; muslins, silk stuffs, and brocade, indigo in great quantities, ivory, chalk, bamboos, wax, tin, sandal-wood, sugar, spices, and cowries. The exports to Independent Tartary consist of articles previously imported from India, or made in the Indian provinces of the kingdom. The principal imports from that country are horses, and gold and silver in the form of coin or of Chinese ingots. Cochineal, broad cloth, pots, and hardware, come from Bokhara, being originally brought from Russia; also Russian leather, tin beads, spectacles, and other European articles. Oormuk, a fine cloth of camel's wool, cotton, and some lamb skins, are imported from Bokhara itself; and a few of the two humped camels from the Kuzzauk country. With Persia an interchange of manufactures is the chief trade; they also receive from that country quantities of raw silk, corn, and bullion, and some Indian chintz, which is brought from Coromandel to Abushehr in the Persian Gulf, and then carried across the country to Afghânistan.

Afghân tribes.

Mr. Elphinstone gives a minute delineation of the characters and manners of the different Afghân tribes, for which we must refer to his work. The eastern tribes are in general called Berdooranees; the most conspicuous among them is that of the Yoosofzyes, who are remarkably quarrelsome both towards their neighbours and among themselves. They live on the north side of the river Caubul. Another division consists of the tribes of the Solimân range, the Kheiberees, Vizerees, and others; and the third that of the western Af-

ghâns, the most conspicuous of whom are the Dooranees and the Ghiljies. These two are a sort of rivals; the former being the ruling tribe, and that to which the present king belongs; the latter formerly enjoyed that honour, and under them the Afghâns once subjugated the whole of Persia. The Ghiljies are ferocious and vindictive to their enemies; while the Dooranees are mild as well as manly, and the most respectable of the whole Afghân nation. Some of them lead an agricultural and others a pastoral life. The former live chiefly in villages, a common form of which is that of four streets leading into a square in the centre. There is sometimes a pond, and always some trees in this space, where the young men assemble in the evenings to pursue their sports, while the old men look on and converse. The houses are of brick burned or unburned, cemented with mud mixed with chopt straw. The roofs are sometimes in the form of terraces laid on beams, but more frequently composed of three or four low domes of brick. A house generally consists of only one apartment; and is surrounded by a few outhouses. The villages are for the most part close by the castle of a khan. Many even of the agricultural Dooranees live in tents of black blankets or thick felt. The common ones are low, but those of the khans are comparatively spacious, and high enough to admit a camel. The pastoral tribes for the most part lead an easy and peaceful life, to which they are very much attached, but those on the confines of Persia are fierce and active in their border wars.

City of Kandahr.

The city of Kandahar is in the Dooranee country. It is large and populous; and superior to most Asiatic cities, having the advantage of being built on a plan, but not at all magnificent. The most of it is built of brick cemented with mud. Its external appearance is not remarkable. The greater part of its inhabitants are Afghâns, which is not the case with the other large towns. The Ghiljies possess the country situated between that of the Dooranees and the city of Caubul. It contains the city of Ghiznee, which was the capital of Afghânistan,

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when at its height of power, and holding all Persia in subjection. This was in the beginning of the last century. It is now reduced to a town of 1500 houses, besides suburbs without the walls. It contains two lofty minarets. The tomb of the great Sultan Mahmood is about three miles from the city, a spacious but not a magnificent building, covered with a cupola The tomb-stone is of white marble, it has some verses of the Koran inscribed on it; and some Mollahs are still maintained, who incessantly read the Koran aloud over the grave. There are a few other antiquities, one of the most useful of which is an embankment across a stream, by means of which the city and the fields are supplied with water.

Caubul.

The city of Caubul, the present capital, is handsome, but not extensive. The houses are of wood; Mr. Foster praises the abundance and arrangement of its bazars. On the top of a hill, over the city, is the tomb of the celebrated emperor and historian Bauber. The climate and local scenery of that place are delightful.

Afghân dependencies.

We now proceed to give a short account of the dependencies of the Afghân government. The only one which they at present possess in Turkestan is the town and district of Balk, or Bulkh, a tract which has the Oxus on the north, the mountains of Hindoo Coosh and Paropamisus on the south, Budukshaun on the east, and a desert on the west. This country lies lower than Afghânistan, the descent from the mountains on the north being much greater

Balkh.

and more rapid than on the south. The city of Balkh is of the most remote antiquity; it was known to the Greeks in Alexander's time, under the name of Bactra. It had been the capital of Persia at a much earlier period, being fixed on as the royal residence, by Ky Koosroo, supposed to be the same with Cyrus the Great. All the Asiatics are impressed with the idea of its being the oldest city in the world. It is now insignificant, but has extensive ruins. The surrounding country is flat, fertile, and well cultivated. It is said to contain 360 villages, and is watered by eighteen canals, drawn from a celebrated reservoir in the

Paropamisan mountains. One of them was reckoned to produce an annual revenue of L.9000 Sterling. The people of this district resemble the rest of the Uzbek Tartars, being uncommonly strict as Sonnee Mahometans, and regulating their conduct entirely by the Koran, which is their only rule, both in private life and in the administration of justice.

The Paropamisan range of mountains is inhabited by two races, which, though subject to the Afghân government, are not of Afghân descent, and differ from them entirely in language, appearance, and manners. Their language is a dialect of the Persian. They seem to be of the same race, but divided by difference of religion, the Eimauks being rigid Sonnees, and the Hazaurehs violent Sheeahs. The governments of both are despotic, whereas those of the Afghân tribes are remarkably the reverse. The country of the Eimauks is the farthest west, and the least mountainous, but the hills are lofty and steep towards Herât. The Eimauk chiefs sometimes inhabit spacious palaces in strong castles, where they maintain little courts, and are attended by splendid retinues. They levy taxes on their tribes, and keep troops in their own pay, and mounted on their own horses. The administration of justice, and the right of life and death are in their hands. These people keep many sheep, and rear a small but hardy breed of horses. They eat horse flesh. In other respects they resemble the Afghâns, but their despotic governments give them an appearance of greater order and quiet. In war they show a degree of ferocity not known among the Afghâns, sometimes throwing their prisoners over precipices, at others shooting them with arrows, drinking the warm blood of their enemies, and rubbing it over their faces and beards. Two tribes of Eimauks, situated to the west of Herât, are subject to Persia. The number of the Eimauks may amount to 400 or 450,000.

Eimauks.

The term Hazaureh has been differently applied. There is a subordinate tribe of the Eimauks, called the Hazaureh. The regiments into which the Tartar armies were

Hazaurehs.

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divided used to be called Hazaurehs; but the Hazaureh nation is not to be confounded with either of these, although it may be conjectured to have owed its origin to the armies now mentioned, which were left to occupy part of the conquered country. The country of the Hazaurehs is more rugged than that of the Eimauks. It is unfavourable to the culture of grain; and hence animal food, including horse flesh and the productions of the dairy, are, with that people, more important articles of diet. They live in thatched houses, half sunk in the slopes of the hills.

Dress. The inhabitants twist rolls of cloth round their legs, instead of stockings, a custom common to them with the Uzbeks. The women wear long frocks of woollen stuff, and boots of soft deer-skin as high as the knees. Their cap sits close to the head, and a slip of cloth hangs down behind half way to the ground. They have strong Tartar features, but their habit of body is stouter and plumper than that of the Tartars. The women are often handsome, and have an ascendancy unexampled in the neighbouring countries. The wife manages the house, takes care of the property, does her share of the honours, and is much consulted in all her husband's measures. Women are never beaten; they have no concealment, but are said to be indifferent in their character for chastity. Both sexes spend much of their time in the house, sitting round a stove. They are all great singers and players on the guitar, and many of them poets. Lovers and their mistresses sing verses to one another of their own composing, and men often sit for hours railing at each other in extemporaneous satire. Their amusements out of doors are hunting, shooting deer, and racing. They are good archers, and every man has a match-lock.

Character. They are passionate, exceedingly fickle, and often engaged in broils among themselves; yet a merry, conversible, good natured and hospitable race. An extreme simplicity prevails among them. It is said that they believe the king of Caubul to be as high as the tower of a castle. They are not exempt from falsehood. They live in villages of from twenty to a hundred houses, each village

having a high tower for defence, in which a sentinel constantly watches, and if necessary, sounds the kettle drum; when the sound is taken up from hill to hill, and two or three thousand men are in a short time assembled at the point of attack. They are divided into tribes, each of which has a Sultan who lives in considerable state, and is armed with high powers. They have, however, some democratic tribes. They are all enthusiastical followers of Ali, hold in detestation the Afghâns, Eimauks, and Uzbeks for following the sect of the Sonnees, and insult, if they do not persecute, every Sonnite who enters their country. They even distrust such of their own countrymen as have been much among the Afghâns, suspecting them of a degree of deterioration. They have little intercourse with the rest of mankind. The little trade they have is carried on by barter; sugar and salt are the foreign commodities most in request. Their country, though more extensive, is less peopled than that of the Eimauks, and their number probably does not exceed from 300, to 350,000 souls. The country of the Hazaurehs contains two idols, representing a man and a woman, the former twenty yards high, and the latter fourteen. The man has a turban on his head, one hand is held up to his mouth, and the other across his breast. These are thought to be relics of the worship of Boodh, and resemble the colossal statues at the entrance of the temples consecrated to that religion.

Tribes.

Religion.

Herât, though within the limits of the Dooranee country, forms a distinct government, and is in little subjection to the general government of the kingdom. The city of this name is one of the most ancient and renowned in the east. It was formerly called Heri, and gave its name to an extensive province in the time of Alexander. It was long the capital of Tamerlane's empire. From his descendants it passed into the hands of the Sophi Kings of Persia, from whom it was taken by the Dooranees in 1715; it was taken again by Nadir Shah in 1731, and retaken by the Afghân king, Ahmed Shah, in 1749. It surpasses the other Afghân cities in magnificence. It has a very spacious and elegant mosque, sur-

Herât.

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rounded by domes and minarets, and ornamented with the shining painted tile which is so much used in all the Persian buildings. It is surrounded by a broad wet ditch, covers a great space, and contains about 100,000 inhabitants. Two-thirds consist of ancient inhabitants who are all Sheeahs, a tenth Dooranees, and the rest Eimauks and Moguls, together with the same mixture as the other towns of the kingdom. The inhabitants of the surrounding country are mostly Taujiks, who, like the rest of that race, bear a very respectable character. The revenue of Herât is reckoned at a million of rupees, one half of which is applied to the maintenance of local troops, and the payment of salaries, while the other passes into the royal treasury. The government is generally held by a son of the King of Caubul. The present is Feeroz Oosden, brother of the king, a mild and respectable, though rather a timid character. It is less subject to the Afghân kingdom than its other dependencies, being occasionally attacked or threatened by the Persian power, and obliged to purchase its peace on the condition of payments, which constitute a sort of irregular tribute. Mr. Kinneir represents it as subject to the king of Persia, but the family to which the governor belongs appears decisive of its subjection to the Afghâns.

Seïstan.

The province of Seïstan exhibits a scene of deplorable degeneracy, both in its physical and moral character. The numerous ruins which it still contains testify it to have been once a fertile country, full of cities scarcely surpassed by any in Asia. These reverses are the effects of the perpetual encroachments of the sands of the deserts by which it is surrounded on all sides except the north, where it joins the Dooranee country. Every wind brings clouds of a light drifting sand, which destroys the fertility of the fields, and gradually overwhelms the villages. The only parts which retain their fertility are the immediate banks of the rivers Helmund and Furra-Rood, and of the lake of

Its lake.

Durra into which they flow. This lake is about 150 miles in circumference. The water is not salt, but brackish, and scarcely fit for drinking. In the centre there is an island called Copee Zoor, or "the hill of strength," some-

times the fort of Roostum. It is still an occasional place of refuge for the inhabitants of the shores. The miry banks are occupied by a rank and irregular vegetation of rushes and reeds, frequented by herds of oxen kept by a set of persons who seem to form a distinct race. Exterior to these a stripe of land produces grass, grain, and tamarisks. The rest of the country is almost a desert, producing some forage for camels, and here and there a well for the wandering Belooches, to whom these animals belong. The original inhabitants of Seïstan are Taujiks, to which have been added two other tribes from Persian Irak, all of whom resemble the Persians in character and manners. The Belooches have extended into this country, and are commanded by Jehaun Khan, who is a terror to the caravans, and to the neighbouring countries. The lineal descendent of the ancient chiefs of Seistan, Mullik Behrân Khânee, assumes the title and state of royalty, but has scarcely a thousand men at his disposal.

Beloochistan and Lower Sind.

Beloochistan, occupying the greatest part of Mekrân, extends from Afghânistan on the north to the Indian ocean on the south. It has Kerman in Persia on the west, and Sind on the east. It is the ancient *Gedrosia*. It is an hundred miles long, and three hundred and fifty broad. The largest division belongs to the Khan of Kelât, comprehending the table land, which is cold, rugged, and barren, but resembles the Afghân country, and the low parts called Sewestân, which are not to be confounded with Seistan, already described, but lying on the south and on the east. These tracts are hot, and generally dry, but, round Gundawa, Dauder and other towns, well watered and cultivated. It is mostly inhabited by Juts. The inhabitants of the table land are Brahoo Belooches, mixed with Taujiks. The former are a hospitable and honest people, but deprived of the advantages of civilization, and have a general resemblance to the Afghâns. The plains are inhabited by another race, distinct in language and most other particulars, who are called Rind. These are determined and sanguinary robbers. Plunder on a small scale is held by them in contempt. When they intend to make a *chepao*, or foray,

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they set out on camels, each man having the charge of ten or twelve, and ride eighty miles a day, till they approach the destined scene of operations, lurk in some unfrequented jungle in the neighbourhood, rush out at midnight, set the devoted village on fire, and kill or carry off men, women, children and flocks. The captives are blind-folded and tied on camels, that they may never know the road back to their native spot. Messrs. Pottinger and Christie, in a perilous journey which they undertook across this region, found to the west of the Belooches, in Mekrân Proper, Loories, and other tribes of a meaner and more brutal class, who are abandoned to every species of depravity, plunder in every shape, and murder in cold blood on the slightest resentment. They scarcely rear any children, and keep up their communities chiefly by man-stealing.

Sind.

Lower Sind is a country justly compared to the Delta of Egypt in all its physical characters. The former capital was Tatta, the ancient *Pattala;* the present is Hyderabad. It is rather barbarously governed by three brothers called Ameers, in the name of the Afghân kings, and a revenue of sixty one lacks of rupees (L.767,000) is raised by every sort of extortion and oppression. They ought to pay 1,500,000 rupees, (fifteen lacks) annually to the king, but have generally withheld it, unless when in immediate fear of the royal armies. They maintain a force of 38,000 irregular cavalry. The Sindees are a handsome race, blacker than most of the people of India, but have the character of being treacherous, cruel, licentious, and very deficient in intelligence.

Upper Sind.

Shirkarpoor, in Upper Sind, is bounded by the Indus on the east, and the Belooche country on the west. The town is of considerable size, surrounded with a mud wall. It contains several wealthy bankers; and Shirkapooree bankers are found in all the towns of Afghânistan and Turkestan. It is governed by a Hâkim, who keeps very few troops, and pays a revenue of three lacks of rupees. The country of the Mozaurees to the north is inhabited

chiefly by Belooches. Bahawulpoor includes for a certain distance, the banks of the Indus, and its two tributaries, the Hydaspes and the Acesines. Above this is Mooltan, which is exposed to many revolutions, being sometimes in the hands of the Mahrattas, and recently threatened by the Sikhs.

Cashmere.

The valley of Cashmere is surrounded by lofty mountains, which on the north divide it from little Thibet, from Ladauk on the east, from the Punjaub on the south, and from Pukhlee on the west. On the north-west, a branch of the Speen (or white) Caufirs, comes in contact with it. The Cashmerians are a distinct race of Hindoos, peculiar in language and manners. The men are stout, active, and industrious, much addicted to pleasure, and notorious for falsehood and cunning. They are chiefly Mussulmans. In the year 742 of the Hegira, the Hindoo kings were succeeded by a Mahometan dynasty. This, after reigning nearly 300 years, was subdued by the son of Bauber, and Cashmere remained in the hands of the Moguls, till the time of Ahmed Shah, when it was taken by the Dooranee Afghâns. It is governed with a strong hand, no natives being allowed the use of arms within the city. The administration is tyrannical, and numerous spies are employed. The city of Cashmere is the largest in the Afghân dominions, and contains from 150 to 200,000 inhabitants. The gross revenue of the provinces is said to be 4,626,300 rupees (or nearly L.500,000.) The governor has constantly at his disposal a force of 5400 horse, and 3200 infantry. The most remarkable production of Cashmere is its shawls, which are said to occupy sixteen thousand looms.

Government.

The royal power is subjected to greater control among the Afghâns than in most other Asiatic countries, as the power of the Dooranee aristocracy, and the organization of the other tribes are permanent; and notwithstanding the division into tribes, and the rivalry which sometimes exists among them, there is a general sentiment of regard for the public interest, and the honour of the Afghân name.

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There is no regular or well matured constitution, yet there are some established customs and practical opinions respecting the government. There is no fixed rule for the crown descending to the eldest son. When a king dies, it has been usual for the great Dooranee Sirdars present at the court, to meet and consider which of his sons is to succeed. Their voice secures the possession of the capital; but the practice of conferring the different great governments on the king's sons generally leads to a contest. The whole of the royal family, except those whom the king particularly favours, are closely confined in the upper citadel of Caubul, where they are well treated. Those who remain at large are appointed to the government of provinces or the command of armies. The king has the exclusive privilege of coining, and the right of war and peace; all appointments are in his gift, though in many cases his choice is confined to particular families; of this description are the chiefships of tribes. Some officers of the state, and many even of the king's household, are also hereditary. He has the entire control of the revenue both in collection and expenditure, but he cannot increase the settlement of the land revenue fixed by Ahmed Shah, which is extremely easy. The only means by which he can increase his resources derived from the Afghâns are fines, compositions for military service, and sometimes arbitrary valuations of the productions of the land. He has the controul of military levies, and the command of the army; he has the direction of religious affairs, but has little room for interference. His general policy is to keep the Dooranee tribe in subjection to himself, while he exalts them over the other Afghâns. Therefore he protects the Taujiks, or townsmen not belonging to the clans, and all others whose power he can use to depress the nobles. His men are got from the western, and money chiefly from the eastern tribes. The Afghân views of conquest are directed rather to the east than to the west of their present territory. The riches of the Indian provinces are the chief temptations. They threatened India of late years during the wars of Buonaparte; and one ob-

ject of the diplomatic intercourse opened between Great Britain and Persia was, to induce the later power to form a diversion on the west in case of their attempting to invade India. The mission was attended with the desired effect of preventing such a movement on the part of the Afghâns.—The punishments inflicted on offenders among the Afghâns are lenient compared with the severity of the Persians. The practice of maiming or blinding the common people is unknown. But the government often resorts to perfidious measures to seize offenders, and employs torture, especially on the rich, for extorting money. The chief minister is called Vizier-Azem, as in Turkey; he manages the revenue, and controuls the other departments. Next to him are the Moonshee-Baushee, or chief secretary, who manages the king's correspondence; and the Hircarrah-Baushee, who is at the head of the intelligence department. The officers of the court and household are very numerous, being formed on the model of Nadir Shah's; each of the branches belonging to it is distinguished by a particular dress. The appearance of the court is regular and decorous. Each of the eighteen most important provinces of the kingdom is governed by a Hâkim, to collect the revenue and command the militia, and a Sirdar to command the regular troops and preserve public tranquillity. These act through the medium of the heads of tribes where the latter are powerful; where the tribes are weak, they send their orders directly to the heads of subdivisions. The principal source of the king's income is the land revenue. Some payments in kind are appropriated to the maintenance of the king's household. These are from particular lands. The real revenue falls within two crores of rupees, or two millions Sterling. The Dooranee clans are obliged to furnish 12,000 men as the condition on which they hold their *tekools*, or rent-free lands, granted them by Ahmed-Shah and Nadir. The establishment of the Ghollaum-Kaunch, a force formed by Ahmed Shah from the foreigners found in the Dooranee country, and recruited afterwards from the Taujiks of Caubul, is upwards of 15,000

Punishments.

Revenue.

Military establishment.

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men. The interest of these troops secures their fidelity to the king. He has also 700 or 800 Shaheenchees, or enmounted on camels which carry large swivels. The troops kept by the governors of provinces can seldom be employed except in wars carried on in their neighbourhood. Another division of the army is called Karra-Nokur, furnished by the owners of land; the numbers vary in the different localities. Their number taken together is less than that of either of the first two branches. These troops are all cavalry, except a corps not exceeding 2000, furnished by the Cohistan of Caubul. There is a militia called Eeljauree, raised on extraordinary occasions, generally understood to be a tenth part of the population, though that proportion is seldom realised. These are paid by the chiefs of the tribes. They are almost all infantry. Compulsion is generally necessary to bring them out, their pay being small, except when the army is bound for India, where they will even go without pay in hopes of plunder. In foreign invasions the people may be raised *en masse*; this is called *ooloosee* from *ooloos*, the Afghân term for a tribe. The regular troops are almost all cavalry. The horses belong to the men, except those on which 500 personal servants of the king are mounted. A Persian sword and a matchlock are the usual arms. They are unacquainted with regular tactics, although expert in the use of arms and the management of their horses; and, were it not for the nature of their country, they would make a very indifferent resistance to a regular army, though their courage is respectable, and their military habits are kept in exercise by the unsettled state of their political society.

BOOK XXXVI.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Comprehending Great Bukharia, Kowaresmia, Turcomania, Turkestan, and the Kirguis country.

THE countries lying to the east of the Caspian Sea, which are watered by the Oxus and the Iaxartes, went under the name of Asiatic Scythia among the Greeks. It is possible, and even probable, that the true Scythians of Europe, the Finnish tribes of which we shall speak in their proper place, occupied this country at a very remote epoch; but the nations known in history as inhabitants of Scythia in Asia appear to have had one common origin with the modern Tartars or Tatars. The Tartar names of rivers, of mountains, and of provinces,* are recognised in the midst of the Persian names introduced into Grecian geography since the time of Alexander, and no trace of the Finnish languages is to be discovered among them. Besides, no history from the age of Alexander down to the fourth or fifth century gives any certain account of a great migration of people, that could have brought new colonies into these countries.

The Scythians of Asia.

* Khowarezm, *Chorasmia*, (Ptol., Strab.) Kharizm, *Charasmii*, (Herod.) Uzes, *Ulii*, (Herod.); *Uitii*, (Strab.) Tokharestan, *Tochari*, Sakita, (d'Anville,) *Sacæ*. Turks, *Turcæ*, (Pomp. Mel.) Djihon, *Zonus*, (Plin. Sihoun, *Silys*, (Plin.) Mus-Tag, *Imaus*, etc.

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But warlike and nomade tribes must often have changed their degree of consequence, their name, and their situation. Between the second and fourth centuries, the Sacæ and Massagetæ disappeared from the map. Persia and Byzantium became acquainted with the formidable names of the Turks of Transoxiana, and the White Huns, or Ephthalites. But these last, so named because they lived upon the Oxus, called in Persian *Aptelah*, were probably Turks, and perhaps the very same as the Uzes or Uzbecks, who, after many revolutions, became ultimate masters of Great Bukharia. The Turks, whose capital at one time was Taraz, and afterwards Otrar, gave the name of Turkestan to a great extent of country. All the nations whom we denominate Tartars, acknowledge the appellation of Turks as belonging to them in common.* It occurs in Pomponius Mela and in Pliny; and there is no reason why we should erase it from their works.† If it is retained, its antiquity is at least anterior to the age of these compilers. This celebrated name has found its way into the *sagas* of the Icelanders,‡ which seems to indicate some ancient connection between the Goths and the Turkish nations; traces of such a connection being at the same time found in their languages.

The ancient Turks.

The Tatars or Tartars.

It was not till the twelfth century that the name of Tartars, or more correctly Tatars, became famous in Europe. Abul-Ghazi affirms that there was among the Turkish hordes a tribe called Tatars, and he speaks of them as forming one considerable division of the great Turkish nation. He says, again, that the Tatars were divided into several tribes; and that one of them maintained some bloody wars with the Chinese; an account

* Rytschkow, Orenburgskaia Topographia, t. I. ch. 1. Fischer, Quæstiones Petropolitanæ, p. 58. D'Anville, Mém. de l'Acad. des Inscriptions, t. LII. p. 201.

† Plin. VI. 7. Pomp. Mela, I. 21. Compare Herod. IV. 22.

‡ Snorro, Heimskringla, I. p. 2. Hervarar Saga, p. I. cap. 1. Langfedgatal, etc.

which corresponds with the Chinese annals.* Some, however, consider the name Tartar as unknown to the Turkish nations, and as having been given to them by the Chinese; it appears that the latter gave the name of *Tata* to the nomade nations of central Asia.† Another opinion is maintained and some arguments offered in proof of it by Mr. Stephen Quatremère, that the Tatars were a Mongol, and not a Turkish Tribe.

Extension of the name of Tartars.

Whatever the case may be, the name of Tatars, changed into Tartars notwithstanding the remonstrances of the learned,‡ had so much fame in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, that it invaded the whole of central and northern Asia. It absorbed that of the Mongols, although the latter held the Tartars in subjection. The cause of this fact may perhaps be found even in the victories of Genghis Khan. The Tartars subjugated by him were enlisted in his armies, and in those of his successors. They greatly exceeded in number those who were the original subjects and countrymen of these princes, and, in the end, caused the name of the Mongols, their conquerors, to be forgotten. This view of the subject is confirmed by the adoption of the Tatar language in all the countries conquered by the Genghissides; the inhabitants of such countries having previously used peculiar idioms which were neither Mongol nor Tatar. That preference of the Tatar to the Mongol would not have been general and constant, had not the Tartar nation been much more numerous than the other whose military glories it shared.

Difference between the Tatars and Mongols.

The Tartars differ as much from the Mongols in their features, physical constitution, and language, as the Moors do from the negroes. A slender figure, a European visage, though somewhat yellow in complexion, curled hair, and a long beard, distinguish the Tartar from the squat shapeless

* Histoire Généalogique des Tatars, p. 167; Histoire de l'Empire des Mogols, p. 5.

† Visdelou, Biblioth. Orient. p. 147.

‡ Leunclavius, Pandect. histor. Turc. Langlès, Pallas, etc.

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monster, with flat nose, prominent cheeks, almost beardless chin, and lank hair, who inhabits the deserts of Mongolia. The countries of these two races of men constitute two distinct physical regions. The Mongols, of whom the Kalmuks are a branch, occupy all the central plateau from Lake Palcati and the Beloor mountains to the great wall of China, and to the Siolki mountains which separate them from the Mantchoos, a tribe of the great race of the Tongooses. The Tartars are the possessors of that extensive country which lies between the Beloor mountains on the one side, and the lake Aral and the Caspian Sea on the other, and which may be called either Tartary or Turkestan.

The Tartars have indeed inhabited, and even reigned over Little Bukharia; but there they have been subdued by the Kalmuks. On the other side, the Tartars once had possession of the *khanats* of *Sibir*, or kingdoms of Siberia, called also Tura, Kasan, Astrakan, and the Crimea; but these four states have fallen under the Russian dominion. A number of Tartars remain in these countries; some on the Tobol and the Irtysh, as far as the river Yenisei; others in the neighbourhood of Kasan. A small number live in the Crimea, and some tribes have taken refuge in Caucasus, where they settle round those posts which are protected by the Russian arms from the lawlessness of the native mountaineers. Tartary is thus very extensive in an ethnographic sense, as denoting the country inhabited by Tartars. But the independent Tartar nations are confined within narrower limits. They occupy only the physical region bounded on the north by the Algydim-Shalo mountains, or the course of the Irtysh; on the west by the course of the Ural and the Caspian Sea; on the south by Khorasan and the mountains of Gaoor or Paropamisus, and on the east by the chain of Beloor.

Limits of Tartary.

On the north, the steppe of Issim and the river Yaik, or Ural, separate Tartary from Russia. The Beloor mountains are its barrier on the side of China. On the west the Caspian Sea furnishes a natural frontier; on the south it

has no similar barrier to secure it from the invasions of the Afghâns, as that power is in possession of the city and territory of Balk. Still Tartary, geographically considered, must be extended on the south to the Hindoo Coosh mountains, which separate it from Afghânistan.

This country, without including the steppe of Issim which is claimed by the Russians, has more than 460,000 square miles of surface; though it probably does not support six millions of inhabitants.

The leading divisions are, on the north, the country of the Kirguis, with the districts of the Karakalpaks and of the Aralians, and the states of Tashkent and Turkestan; on the west Khowaresmia, with the country of the Turcomans or Truckmenes; on the south-east great Bukharia, with Ferguana and the countries of Sogd, Osrushna, and others.

Nature of the territory.

Tartary, as now defined, may be regarded as the western declivity of the great plateau of central Asia. It is a series of basins, all of which terminate in the Caspian Sea and the lake Aral. A great part of this country must have very little elevation; but it is hemmed in by mountains on the south, on the east, and partly on the north. The principal mountains on the east are those of Beloor, or Beloot-Tag, which constitute a great chain, covered with perpetual snow. On the north-east this chain is continued in the Alak, called also Alak-oola, a term which signifies in the Kirguis language "The Speckled Mountains," forming the northern boundary of little Bucharia, and joining the great Bogdo, asserted by the Mongols and Tartars to be the highest mountain of central Asia. The Alak mountains are also named Musart, according to Pallas, and contain glaciers. On the south Great Bukharia is bounded by the Hindoo Coosh, and the mountains of Gaoer, which are merely an extension of the former; at least we know of no interruption, except a narrow gorge on the south of the Anderab. All the east part of the basin of the Gihon is surrounded and filled with mountains, from which the river issues a little way from

Mountains, Beloor, Alak.

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the city of Termed; the defile is not more than a hundred paces wide, and the sublime horrors of the place are well expressed by the Persian name given to it, Djani-Sheer, which means "the Lion's Throat."* Immediately after this the sandy plains commence. Between the basins of the Gihon and of the Sihon, or Syr-Daria, the chain of Ak-Tau, or "the white mountain," is extended, being a branch detached from the Beloor. The Kisik-Tag, or "little mountain," which rises in the Kirguis country, is probably the extremity of a branch sent in this direction from the great Altaïc chain. The Ural chain terminates between the sources of the Tobol and the Russian post of Orskaia. From that point it gives off two chains of elevated land; one to the east, which, traversing the steppe of the Kirguis, is known by the Kirguisian name Ula-Tau, or "the Great Mountains," as far as the river Ishim, and from Ishim to Irtysh is called in Russian Alginsky, and in Kalmuk Algydim-Shalo. Another chain, also of moderate height, takes a direction, under the name of Moguldshar, towards the lake Aral, passing between it and the Caspian Sea, and is supposed to be continued, under the name of the mountains of Mangislak or Turcomania, as far as Khorasan.

Defiles of Djuni-Shir.

Ak-Tau.

Ula-Tau.

A full half of Tartary is occupied with immense steppes or desert plains. These are chiefly the Kirguis country. There is one desert to the north of Great Bukharia, and another to the west. Khowaresm is encircled with deserts on all sides. The eastern shores of the Caspian Sea present nothing but a long and gloomy chain of arid downs and rocks. The whole flat country comprehended between the bottoms of the mountains and the valleys in which the rivers flow seems condemned to aridity and barrenness.

Steppe of Kirguis.

Independent Tartary is watered by two large rivers, the Amoo and Syr. To each of these names, the termination *daria*, the Tartar term for a river, is subjoined. The oriental geographers call the Amoo, Gihon, and the Syr, Sihon.

Rivers.

The Amoo takes its rise in the Beloor mountains, about

The Amoo.

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 884. MS. translation.

200 miles to the north-east of Badakshan. At first it has the name of Harrat. After receiving a great number of rivers from Ak-Tau, along the north side of which it flows, and from Hindoo Coosh, which it leaves on the south, it descends near Termed into the plains. Its waters, augmented by the addition of the Dehar, or river of Balk, and many small rivers proceeding from the mountains of Gaoor, take a north-west direction, and fall into the sea of Aral, which appears to have been at every epoch its principal termination. The course of this river is longer than that of the Tigris, being in all probability not less than 886 or 900 miles. It abounds with many kinds of fish. Of the tributary rivers, the three principal are the Sogd, or the river of Samarcand, the Mar-gab, which, however, according to some, loses itself in a lake which does not communicate with the Amoo, and, near its mouth the Kisil-Dariah, or *Red River*, the longest and most considerable, and which besides sends off a distinct branch running separately into the lake Aral.

The Syr, or Sihon.

The Syr or river of Sash, rises in like manner in the Beloor mountains, and after a course of 550 miles falls into the Aral at its eastern side. Ibn Haukal calls this river the Shaje or Shash. Its first source is the river Narin, which arises on the south of the lake Tuseul, in the Alak chain, at the place of its junction with the Beloor, not far from the sources of the river Talas. At Otrar it receives the Taras, which some consider as identical with the Talas, while others are of opinion that the latter as well as the Zouy, are two separate streams, which terminate in a small lake, or are lost in the sand. The Syr, in the remainder of its course, traverses the desert of Burruk. It is possible that by means of a number of small lakes and marshes it may have a sort of communication with the Sarasoo, a river which crosses the Kirguis country. In that country the rivers Irghiz and Turgai also flow, and lose themselves in a lake situated to the north of the lake Aral. Several of these lakes and rivers, now forgotten and unknown, possessed at one time a cele-

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brity from being the scene of the victories of Genghis Khan and his successors, when these conquerors directed the progress of their arms to the north of the Caspian, and laid the greater part of European Russia at their feet.

Lake of Aral.

The largest lake of these countries is that called the lake or sea of Aral, *i. e.* the "Sea of Eagles," and among the writers of the east, the lake of Khowaresm and the lake of Oghooz. Its waters having but little saline impregnation, it contains, like the Caspian Sea, sturgeons and seals. If this lake was ever united with the Caspian Sea, it could only be by a very narrow strait, since the plains which lie between them are certainly very high, and, according to some, the intervening land consists of lofty mountains. The eastern shores of this lake are flat and marshy.

Salt Lakes.

The other lakes of Tartary are of no considerable extent, and generally remarkable for their saline nature. Through the whole of the steppe of Kirguis, such lakes are of frequent occurrence, and all the country situated between the lake of Aral and the Caspian Sea has an infinite number of brackish marshes. This sort of lakes has been already considered with a reference to the general laws of physical geography.* It is rather singular that the mountainous regions in which the Oxus and Iaxartes take their rise, do not, like Upper Siberia, present a collection of lakes, generally so common in the neighbourhood of great mountain chains.

Climate.

The climate of Tartary seems, in general, to be healthy. The heat even in the southern parts is moderated by the neighbourhood of the mountains, the summits of which are covered with eternal snow, and, though lying in the parallel of Spain, Greece, and Asiatic Turkey, the summers are rendered cool by the proximity of the deserts of Siberia, and of the Alps of Thibet. To the north of the Syr the winters are sometimes very severe. Sherefedyn has left us a dreadful description of that which the army of

* Vol. I. p. 311, 312.

Tamerlane encountered, when collected on the banks of that river, to march against China. Some lost their noses and ears; the feet and hands of others dropt off; the heavens were in one cloud, and the surface of the earth was one extended mass of snow.* Winters.

To a travelling naturalist Tartary would probably present the same variety of productions and of local situations as the Caucasian region. In one place, the surface of the earth stretches out in plains which present no visible boundary, covered either with coarse bent, or with an inundation of moving sand. In another place, it is intersected with numberless rivers, diversified with smiling hills, and bounded by steep mountains. Wood is in general scarce, as it is in eastern Persia, though it is possible that there may be unknown forests on the sides of the Beloor. On the margins of the rivers the fertility of the soil arrests attention, the grass exceeding in some places the height of a man. In some cantons, rice and other species of grain are cultivated with much industry and success. In better hands these countries might make a flourishing figure. In Bukharia, the vine and other fruits of the south of Europe succeed. It appears that the mountains of the south-east, the Beloor and Hindoo Coosh, contain gold, silver, lapis-lazuli, and a peculiar production, the balais ruby, a crystal of a pale rose colour. It has its name from a canton called Balascia, the position of which is not well ascertained.† In the tenth century, before the industry of the natives was paralysed by a long series of oppression, sal-ammoniac, vitriol, iron, copper, lead, gold, and turquoises, were procured from Ferguana, a canton situated near the sources of the Syr-Daria. Mines of mercury have been since discovered. In the mountain of Zarka there were also springs of naphtha and bitumen, and a stone which "flames and burns," which must be mineral coal.‡ Countries which are better known will be stu- Productions. Minerals. Ancient mines.

* Sheref-edyn, Hist. de Timur-Beg, liv. VI. chap. 29.

† Marco Paolo. ‡ Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 866. MS. translation.

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died more in detail. But we may mention here the general observation, that, according to Strabo whose knowledge extended no farther than the Iaxartes, the Scythians of these countries were in want of iron and silver, but possessed copper and gold in abundance. These two metals are easily worked. The ancient mining operations in the Altai and the Ural mountains, ascribed to the Igoors and to the Fins, were likewise directed to the obtaining of gold and of copper.

Country of the Kirguis.

We shall begin our topographical survey of Tartary in the northern part. It is on this side that a traveller could find means most readily to enter, along with a Russian caravan from Orenburg, this country, which has been much neglected by modern travellers. The frontiers between these nomades and their neighbours the Russians and Chinese, are not determined in a precise manner. The small Kirguisian horde lives between the Yaïk, the sea of Aral, and the environs of Orenburg. The middle horde of the same people wanders along the north side of the Aral lake, as far as the river Saras on the south-east. They often pitch their tents beyond the Algydim-Shalo mountains in the steppe of Issim. The Russians in their maps include all this space within the limits of their own empire, though their sovereignty is merely nominal. The great horde extends to the south-east of the lake of Aral, over the country watered by the Sarasoo and the Syr, as far as the city of Tashkent, perhaps as far as Ferguana.

Nature of the country.

It is from the military expeditions of the Russians that the slight knowledge which we possess of this country has been obtained. It seems to present, in general, a mere succession of sandy downs, and mountains interspersed with hills of a clayey texture, divided by vast plains of sand, where a number of rivers lose themselves in the sand, or in salt lakes. The mountains of Ulu-Tau begin with hills of argillaceous schistus, and sand-stone. We then pass different ranges of lime-stone rock, and in some places granite. Blocks of jasper, and milk-coloured quartz are

met with, together with various indications of copper, silver, lead, and false topaz.* One insulated mountain is composed of an indifferent ore of magnetic iron, another of talc. The Algynski mountains are of the same materials, and have on the south a range of hills consisting of gypsum. BOOK XXXVI.

Climate.

During winter a very strong north-wind prevails, accompanied with snow. The cold attending it is extreme, and the violent whirlwinds raise columns of dust to a height of thirty-feet. The snow, however, lies a very short time, especially near the shores of the Caspian Sea.†

Lake of Indersk.

The salt lake of Indersk, near the river Ural, or Yaik, forms, according to the account of Professor Pallas, a sort of natural curiosity.‡ It is a sheet of water fifty miles in circumference, so impregnated with salt as to give the surface a white colour. Salt springs are continually adding to its contents. Stormy winds arise here which are impregnated with saline particles. The banks present a surprising mixture of clay and marly strata, oyster shells, crystals of alum, and of sulphur.

Vegetation.

Saline plants predominate in this barren country; yet along the rivers there are different species of trees. Some of the valleys or low grounds are very agreeable in summer. Without extended pastures the Kirguisians could not support so many horses, camels, black cattle, sheep, and goats, as we know them to possess. Pallas was informed that some individuals of the middle horde had 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 300 or 400 sheep, and more than 2000 goats. Their dromedaries, which they shear annually like sheep, furnish a large quantity of woolly hair, which is purchased by the Russians, and Bukharians. Their ordinary food is mutton of the flat-tailed breed. Their lamb is so delicate as to

* Nicholas Rytschkow's Account of a Russian Expedition, in Busching's Magas. Geogr. VII. 420, 461. Bardanes, quoted in Georgi, I. 157, &c.

† Pallas, I. 612, 4to. N. Rytschkow's Topography of Orenburg, in Busching's Mag. VI.

‡ Pallas, I. p. 630, &c.

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be sent by way of Orenburg to Petersburgh for the tables of the palaces. The steppes furnish plenty of game, wolves, foxes, badgers, ermines, weasels and marmots. In the mountains of the south and east, there are wild sheep, the yak, or Thibet ox, chamois, jackals; also a species of animals which has been taken for tigers; kulans or wild asses, the saiga antelope, and the *takia*, or wild horse.* The Kirguisians have trained for hunting the species of eagle called in Russia *berkut*, the "aigle doré" of Pallas. Their vast marshes swarm with geese, ducks, and other aquatic birds. There are white serpents more than six feet long, which have frightened the Russian troops, though the natives say that they are perfectly harmless. They are much afraid of a species of venomous spider, black and hairy, with eight eyes, and as large as a walnut.†

Wild animals.

Physiognomy of the Kirguisians.

The Kirguisians have Tartar features, flat noses, and small eyes, but not oblique like those of the Mongols and Chinese. Their lives being frugal and peaceful, they enjoy a long and healthy old age. Their common diseases are intermittent fevers, colds, and asthma. The venereal disease prevails among them; but the small-pox is what they most of all dread.‡

The language of the Kirguisians is a dialect of the Tartar, which the other Tartars perfectly understand; but their pronunciation is harsh, and they are fond of the allegorical style. The hereditary princes of the Kirguisians have but little power, every thing being decided in general assemblies. According to the most modern accounts, the small and middle hordes swear fidelity to the Emperor of Russia by deputies, but they do not acknowledge themselves his subjects, nor pay him any tribute;§ Russia, on the contrary, gives them annual presents. The caravans from

Political state.

* Bardanes. N. Rytschkow, l. c. Pallas, Neue nord. Beytræge, II. 6.

† N. Rytschkow. Mag. Geogr. VII. 84 and VIII. 461.

‡ Pallas, I. p. 620.

§ Le Nord Littéraire d'Olivarius, 1799. n. X.

Bukharia, Khiwa, and Tashkent, pay a duty for passing through their territory and under their escort.

The middle and little hordes are reckoned to contain 40,000 families each. If we suppose the great horde to contain 60,000, the population of this wide region may be estimated at 1,200,000 souls. Population.

Depressed by no despotic yoke, and abundantly provided with the necessaries of life, the Kirguisians are much happier than is generally supposed. They live on the flesh of their sheep, and the milk of their cattle. Armed with lances and matchlocks, they pillage all the neighbouring countries. They are not blood-thirsty, but they employ in their marauding excursions an address which gives no small trouble to the Russian garrisons. They delight in carrying off the Kalmuk women, because they have the reputation of preserving their youthful attractions to an advanced period of life. Though indefatigable marauders, they live on the most friendly terms with one another. They keep in their service slaves whom they have carried off from their neighbours. They wear the Tartar dress, with wide drawers and long pointed boots; their heads are shaved, and covered with conical caps. The trappings of their horses are richly ornamented. The women dress their heads with heron's necks so placed as to have the appearance of horns. Valorous and ferocious horsemen, the Kirguisians are fond of games, exercises, and horse-racing. At the funerals of the rich, horse-races are held, and the heir distributes slaves, camels, horses, magnificent harness, and other prizes, among the victors. They cross the rivers on bridges formed of rush-mats rolled together, and joined by two tight ropes. Their white gun-powder, the process for making which they keep secret, is a subject deserving of further investigation.* Manners, &c.

About the beginning of the seventeenth century this people, formerly Shamanians, was converted by the Superstition.

* N. Rytschkow, l. c. 429.

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preaching of the priests of Turkestan, and submitted to the Mahometan rite of circumcision. But in 1769 Pallas found them addicted to all the extravagancies of magic. They hold the dead in great honour, and every year celebrate a festival to their memory.

Trade.

The Kirguisians have some trade with the Russians, of which Orenburg is the emporium. The middle horde goes as far as Omsk in Siberia. They are supposed to take 150,000 sheep every year to Orenburg; and they furnish also a great quantity of horses, cattle, lambs, furs, camlets, and camels hair. Sometimes they bring Persian or Turcoman slaves. They take home in exchange various articles of manufacture, particularly cloths and furniture. Being refused any arms or armour in Russia, they obtain these from Bukharia and Khiwa in exchange for camels and black cattle.

TURKESTAN.

To the south of the Kirguis country we have a labyrinth of minute divisions, generally not well known. The whole country which extends along the two banks of the Iaxartes as far as the Ak-Tau chain of mountains was comprehended under old Turkestan, a division known to Moses of Chorené in the fifth century by the same name and that of Turkia, and which perhaps corresponds to the famous Tooran of the Persian and Arabian writers. This western Turkestan was distinguished from another called the eastern, and which seems to have included a part of the Kalmuk country and of little Bukharia.

According to the eastern geographers, Turkestan included the province of Fergana, which contains the towns of Andegan, Achsikat, and others, on the Upper Sihon; that of Osrushna, with a town of the same name; Ylak, or Ylestan, in which the river Tankat flows and joins the Sihon,* and which contains the scite of Otrar, the ancient capital, not far from the ruins of Iessi, a capital still more ancient, corresponding perhaps to the Issedon Scythica of

* Abulfeda, Descript. Chorasmiæ et Maweralnaræ, p. 50, etc. (Geog. Min.)

the Greeks;* and lastly, Al-Shash, which was prolonged to the mouth of the river Sihon. In modern accounts these divisions are almost unknown. Turkestan is at present represented as a small country, watered by the river Karasoo, which falls into the Syr. The land is fertile in cotton, millet, wheat, and chesnuts, but indifferently cultivated. Here the venomous spider already mentioned is found, and a species of lizard with legs a quarter of an ell in height.† The town called Turkestan and Taras contains 1000 brick houses. Here a Kirguisian prince lately reigned.‡ The capital of the rest of the country is Tashkent, situated on the banks of the Syr or Sihon, and said to contain 6000 houses. Its inhabitants have a little trade; they cultivate peaches and vines, wheat, cotton, and silk; they have only three months of winter weather; their mountains contain gold. The state is governed by a khan, elected by the people out of the reigning family. This prince is generally a sort of humble vassal to the Kirguisians, whose nomade troops overrun the territory of Tashkent. The canton of Kokani, which has been traversed by the Russian caravans, seems to be identical with the Kogend of our maps.

Karakalpaks.

The Karakalpaks also inhabit the banks of the Sihon. They call themselves Kara-Kiptchaks, *i. e.* the black or tributary Kiptchaks. They are a tribe of the Tartars of Kiptchak subjugated by the Kirguisians. They are divided into an upper and a lower *oolooss* or horde. In 1742 the lower horde, consisting at that time of 15,000 families, sought the protection of Russia, or the *White Czar*, and were almost annihilated by the Kirguisians for calling in foreign aid. The chiefs of the Ooloosses pretend to be descendents of Mahomet. They have also a sort of nobility. Their mode of living resembles that of the Bashkeers in Russia. They have a fixed place for their winter cabins, while the summer ones are moveable. They

Mode of living.

* Hadgi-Khalfah, p. 908. † Arapow, in Mag. Géog. VII. 48.

‡ Rytschkow, in Mag. Géogr. V. 472, etc.

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conjoin agriculture with the keeping of cattle. Possessing few horses, they employ their horned cattle for the draught and the saddle. They practise several trades with success. They sell knives, sabres, muskets, cooking-pots, and gunpowder, to their neighbours. They are Mahometans, and well instructed in the precepts of their religion. The power of the khans is much limited by the influence of the *khodshas* or priests.

Turcomania.

The Trukmenes, or Turcomans, inhabit all the eastern coast of the Caspian sea, a sandy and rocky country, labouring under a great deficiency of water. The Mogulshar mountains, or those of Mangishlak, have no great elevation, but are very steep, and intersected with ravines. Near the Caspian Sea they present limestone rocks full of shells, with strata of chalk, marl, and clay; several springs of naphtha and petroleum, and some indications of lead and of copper.* On the shore conglomerated masses are found, consisting of shells and sand cemented by a hardened stony deposition, or by bitumen. At a greater distance from the sea these masses are completely petrified.

Soil and vegetation.

The waters are salt or brackish. The vegetation of these countries is limited to a few species, among which the *Salsola orientalis* is distinguished by its stiff and prickly appearance.† The *Absinthium ponticum* and caper shrub are in abundance. The *Rhamnus alpina* is employed as firewood.

Animals.

Foxes, wild cats, sheep, and camels, are the animals most generally diffused. The ounce, and even the tiger according to some accounts, are now and then seen. The country swarms with insects, particularly butterflies and locusts. In the gulf and bays the *Nereis noctiluca* is sometimes seen emitting her phosphoric light.

The Turcomans.

The Turcomans, more swarthy, smaller in size, but more square in the limbs than the other Tartars, live in tents, or in caves of the rocks. They are a set of rude shepherds, who, at times, commit acts of robbery. They

* Gmelin, Rytschkow, and Falk, quoted by Georgi.

† Gmelin's Travels, IV. plate 5.

are divided into several hordes, under the conduct of Kirguisian chiefs. The Russians divide them into two nations, or rather two parties: that of the Mangishlak consisting of 2500 or 3000 families, and in which the principal tribe is that of Abdallah. The other is Astrabad, or the Persian party, in which the powerful tribe of the Takeiaumoot is conspicuous. It amounts to 12,000 families, and possesses the territory round the Gulf of Balkan. The Turcomans keep numbers of camels and sheep; their mutton is excellent. They weave a coarse cloth of camel's wool. They raise a little grain and rice, with melons and cucumbers. Their dress, their arms, and their equipage, exhibit a mixture of the Tartar and Persian costume. They live in tents of felt. Their chiefs and elders possess but little authority. Mangishlak was once a town, but at present nothing is to be seen at that place but temporary barracks, in which the Russian merchants are lodged. The harbour is one of the best on the Caspian Sea. The bay of Balkan is frequented by Russian vessels; the neighbouring islands produce a little rice and cotton; that of Naphthonia contains a great quantity of naphtha, the vein or stratum of which seems to cross the Sea in a north-west and south-east direction to Baku. These islands, inhabited by Turcomans, possess several harbours, and might be made the site of a trading factory.* Collectively taken, they are called Ogurtchi, which is also the name given to the adjoining coast, and signifies a country of cucumbers.† Topography.

To the south of the lake Aral, our eyes, after being fatigued by the view of unvaried deserts, find repose in surveying a country somewhat more fertile, called by the Arabs Khowaresm, Karissim by the Tartars and Russians, and *Chorasmia* by the ancients. It also bears the name of Khiwa, which is that of its chief town. In the twelfth century the Turks of Karissim were in possession of a powerful empire. This state is now almost reduced to the province of Khowaresm.

* Gmelin, vol. IV. † Wahl, Asien, etc. I. 557.

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Khiwa, which a man on horseback may ride over in three days. The eastern geographers speak of Kharizmia as a cold country in comparison with Persia. The river Gihon is frozen every year.* According to the Russian accounts the air is temperate; the frosts last only a few days; snow seldom falls, and soon melts. In summer there are no oppressive heats, but the autumnal months are rainy.†

Climate.

Mountains.

The Weisluka mountains, a branch of the Ak-Tau, occupy a part of Khowaresm. They contain gold and silver mines, which were formerly worked, but the traces of which are not at present allowed to be investigated. It is said that emeralds, sardonyxes, and other valuable stones, are found in them. The greater part of the country consists of plains; the soil is generally composed of a reddish clay, and is adapted to all sorts of crops; but the deserts of moving sand which encircle the frontier sometimes invade considerable portions of land.

The Gihon.

The large river Gihon, or Amoo, which crosses this country, is, according to the historians of Alexander, six or seven stadia broad. It is too deep to be forded.‡ A similar description of it is given by the Arabian geographers; the latter speak of inundations occasioned by it. When it arrives at the base of the Weisluka mountains in Khowaresm, the Gihon is separated into several canals of irrigation, preserving two principal branches. The small arm of the Gihon is the only one which always contains water. The other, when the water is high, spreads over a marshy flat, through which it passes; and, like all rivers which have indifferent banks, it is sometimes left dry at several parts of its course.

Canals of irrigation.

Vegetable productions

Among other articles, this country produces wheat, barley, *Holcus sorghum*, or Bukharian millet and *tchegura*, a species of rice; pease, beans, hemp, tobacco, cotton, and

* Ibn Haukal, apud Abulfeda on Chorasm. p. 23. Geogr. Græci minores, t. III.

† Ephémérides Géogr. de M. Bertuch. vol. XXV. p. 108.

‡ Arrian, III. 29. Strabo, XI. 509—518.

the Persian *kushut*, a plant which yields oil; all sorts of fruits of a most excellent flavour, mulberries, and wines in abundance. The grape ripens well; but they observe their religious precepts too strictly to make any wine. A number of cattle are seen wandering in magnificent meadows; but there is little pasture adapted for horses.* Domestic fowls are common, and there are many species of wild birds.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of the country are Tartars of different tribes, chiefly Uzbeks and Turcomans; together with Bukharians, who are divided, as in Bukharia, into Sarti, or traders, and Tatchik, or common people. The Bukharians are the real indigenous people of the country.† The Tartars give the Bukharian inhabitants of the state of Khiwa the name of Urgenetch,‡ from their ancient capital.

Khowaresm is divided into two states, at present independent, that of Chiwa or Khiwa, and that of Konrat, or of the Aralians.§

Government.

The state of Khiwa reckons, on a territory of about 4600 square miles, a population of 200,000 or 250,000 souls. At the head of the government is a khan, who holds a court splendid enough for a Tartar prince, but possesses a mere semblance of authority, and whose functions consist in affixing the seal of state to all the public acts presented to him. The real power is in the hands of the *inak*, the president of the divan, or council of state. This council is formed by the great officers of state, who obtain their places by the suffrages of the people.‖ The moolla-bashi, or head of the doctors of the Mahometan law, also exercises great authority; and it is not altogether rare for the khan to suffer by assassination or by poi-

* Rytschkow, Topography of Orenburg, in Busching's Mag. Hist. et Géogr. V. 470.

† Hist. Gén. des Tartares, p. 515.

‡ Rytschkow, l. c. 468.

§ Annales des Voyages.

‖ Ephémérides Géogr. XXV. 109.

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son.* The indigenous dynasty being extinct for half a century, the inhabitants of Khiwa have elected their khans from the princes of their neighbours the Kirguis. The armed force of Khiwa may amount to 20,000 men, including Turcomans and Uzbeks in the pay of the khan. This army chiefly consists of cavalry; their arms are bows, lances, and sabres. They are rarely seen with muskets, and such as they have are matchlocks.†

Mode of living.

The inhabitants of Khiwa, or, as the Russians denominate them, the Khiwintzes, live in a tolerable state of civilization. According to Al-Bergendi, they evince more natural genius than the other Tartars. They are fond of poetry, and show, from their earliest age, a turn for music. We are told that there seems to be a musical cadence in the very cries of the infants.‡ Abul-Ghazi, prince of Khiwa, has given us a history of the Tartars. These people cultivate their lands with care; they raise silk worms and make coarse stuffs of silk, of cotton, and mixtures of the two. These stuffs are weaved by the women in their houses. None of them are made in the European manner.

Industry.

Trade.

The caravans of Khiwa carry to Orenburg wheat, raw cotton, silk and cotton stuffs, robes embroidered with gold, ready made and called *shalati*, lamb's skins, and sometimes Persian and Indian coin.§ In Russia they buy the products of European manufacture; and from the Turcomans, horses, cattle, and sheep. Khiwa is still a great slave market. The foreign trade of this state is valued at 800,000 rubles, or £46,000.

Towns.

The city of Khiwa, is on a canal of the Gihon, surrounded with a ditch, a clay wall, and a rampart. It has three gates, a castle, thirty mosques, and a college. The houses are 3000, built of clay in the manner of the country; the inhabitants are reckoned 10,000. The neighbourhood is filled with orchards, vineyards, and populous

* Rytschkow, l. c. 469.

† Ephém. Géogr. p. 110.

‡ D'Herbelot. Biblioth. Orient.

§ Georgi, Descript. de la Russie, III. 517.

villages.* The whole canton of Khiwa contains a population of 60,000 souls.—The new city of Urghenz, thirty miles north from Khiwa on the same canal, contains twenty mosques, 1500 houses, 5000 inhabitants; and in the canton belonging to it there is a population of 55,000.—Shabat and Ket are two small towns, the one containing 2000 and the other 1500 inhabitants.—Anbari has only 1000, but its canton 44,000 souls.—The canton of Shanka has 25,000, of whom 2000 belong to the town.—Azaris, probably the Hasarasp of Ibn Haukal, contains 1500 inhabitants, and its canton altogether 11,500.—Hurlian a very small place, is a kind of fortress; its canton is very thickly peopled, and contains 16,000 inhabitants. This population, concentrated within a space of fifty or eighty miles long and broad, would become a powerful state if it were possible for a European colony to establish itself in the midst of people so strongly attached to the Mahometan religion.

The Usbek Aralians, who possess the plains adjoining lake Aral, take also the name of the Konrat, after their chief town, which is, more properly speaking, their winter encampment. This camp has a circumference of fourteen miles. It is defended by an earthen rampart twelve Russian ells in height. In cases of necessity the gates are defended by *chevaux-de-frise*. Manhuf and Kisil-Kosha are on the same plan on a small scale. Koptchak is a sort of fortress, in which a garrison of 1500 men is always kept. The Aralians, governed by two elective beks, are liable to the state of Khiwa in an annual tribute of 2000 ducats, (£250.) But they do not pay it except when they are not at war with the Khiwintzes, a thing which happens almost every year. Along with those Karakalpaks and Turcomans who live among them, they may form a mass of 100,000 souls. These people, who are half nomadic, have a considerable produce from their flocks, to which they add something by fishing and hunting. The Aralians.

* Ephemer. Geograph. XXV. 110.

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GREAT BUCHARIA.

The finest provinces of Tartary remain to be described. They are generally comprehended under the name of Great Bukharia. But the limits of this country on the north and west vary with the power of the Uzbeks, who are its masters. It was that part of Great Bukharia which is situated on the north of the Gihon or Oxus, that was formerly celebrated under the names of *Transoxiana* and *Maweralnahr*, names extended to the whole of Turkestan.

Province of Sogd.

The most celebrated and the most fertile of all the provinces is that of Sogd, so named from the river which flows through it. "For eight days," says Ibn Haukal, "we may travel in the country of Sogd and not be out of one delicious garden. On every side, villages, rich corn fields, fruitful orchards, country houses, gardens, meadows intersected by rivulets, reservoirs, and canals, present a most lively picture of industry and of happiness." The rich valley of Sogd produced so great an abundance of exquisite grapes, melons, pears, and apples, that they were exported to Persia, and even to Hindostan.

Samarcand.

Samarcand, considered as the capital of Great Bukharia, stands on the south bank of the Sogd. We have no recent description of this celebrated city, which seems to have lost much of its lustre since the days of Timur, when so many fetes animated the imperial palace, the city, and the beautiful surrounding country. It appears that towards the beginning of the last century Samarcand was fortified with ramparts of tufa, or soft stone; that the greater part of the houses were built of hardened clay, and some of them of stones found in neighbouring quarries.* The khan of Great Bukharia encamped in the adjoining meadows, and the citadel was almost in ruins. The silk paper made here was peculiarly fine, and in much request all over the east; and it is said that this is the place where paper-making was invented. Ibn Haukal tells us that the manufacture was known about the year 650.

* Bentinck's Preface to the Translation of the Hist. of the Tartars by Abool-Ghazi.

"I have often," says this eastern geographer, "been at Kohendiz, the ancient castle of Bukhara. I have cast my eyes all round, and never have I seen a verdure more fresh or more abundant, or of wider extent. This green carpeting, mingled in the horizon with the azure of the skies. The simple verdure served as a sort of ornamental offset to the towns contained in it. Numerous country seats decorated the simplicity of the fields. Hence I am not surprized that of all the inhabitants of Khorasan and Maweralnahr, none attain a more advanced age than those of Bukhara.* The city of Bukhara, situated on the same river Sogd has often disputed with Samarcand the title of capital. When the English commercial agents, in 1741, visited this city, which stands on the side of a hill in the form of an amphitheatre, they found it large, populous, and governed by a Khan. The inhabitants manufactured soap and cotton stuffs: they cultivated rice and bred cattle. From the Kalmuks they received rhubarb and musk; lapis lazuli, and some other precious stones from Badakshan. They had gold and copper money. The people were civilized but deceitful. The soil, says the Turkish geographer, is so fertile, that a field of one or at most two acres, which he calls *dumen*, was amply sufficient to maintain a family.† BOOK XXXVI. Environs and city of Bukhara.

The eastern part of Bukharia is a very mountainous country. The provinces of Vash, of Kotlan, and of Kilan extend towards the Beloor mountains. Among other towns is that of Badakshan on the Amoo. In the last century, this city belonged to the khan of Great Bukharia, or rather of Samarcand. Badakshan was small, but well built and populous. Its inhabitants were enriched by the gold, the silver, and the rubies found in the neighbourhood. The mountain streams, which ran when the snow melted in the beginning of summer, carried along with them a large quantity of gold and silver in grains. Many of the caravans, bound for little Bukharia or for China, take Provinces of Vash, Kilan, and Budakshan.

* Eastern Geography translated by Ouseley, p. 300.

† Hadgi-Khalfa, p. 844. Herbelot Biblioth. Orient.

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this city on their way. Others prefer the road of little Thibet, on the east side of the mountains. Ibn Haukal relates, that the soil of Badakshan not only contained mines of rubies and other valuable stones, but produced a great quantity of musk. Termed is a good town, built of brick.

Province of Gaoor.

The provinces of Balk, now in the hands of the Afghâns, of Tokarestan, and of Gaoor, lie on the south side of the river Amoo.

The interesting country which we have now gone over is the famous *Maweralnahr* of the Arabian and Tartar history. There stood the throne of Tamerlane. There the ambassadors of all the sovereigns of the world came to pay their respects to the chief of the Mongols. In 1494, Sultan Bauber, a descendant of Timur, driven with his Mongols from Great Bukharia, penetrated into Hindostan, where he founded the Mogul empire. The victorious Tartars, called the Uzbeks, established a powerful monarchy in Bukharia.

Monarchy of the Uzbeks.

The Uzbeks first crossed the Iaxartes about the beginning of the sixteenth century, and pouring on the possessions of the descendents of Tamerlane, soon drove them from Bukharia, Khoarism, and Fergana.* They now possess this country, and it is said that they are to be found beyond the Beloor mountains, as far east as Koten, if not farther. They belong to the Turkish race. Their government is very different from that of the Afghâns. In Bukharia and Fergana at least, every thing is in the hands of the sovereign: there is no vestige of popular government, and scarcely any trace of aristocracy. Their division into tribes has no relation to the government, and there are no separate jurisdictions or assemblies even in the wandering hordes. The country is divided into districts and sub-districts, under officers appointed by the sovereign, who collect the revenue and dispense justice. There are, however, village governments, in which the heads are appointed by the king, at the recommendation of the richest inhabitants. In the army also, every thing depends on the appointment of

* See Elphinstone on the kingdom of Caubul, p. 465, &c.

the government. In Bukhara, the men are said to be arranged in messes of ten each, who have a tent, a boiler, and a camel among them. The Ulema, or members of the church, enjoy, however, a considerable influence not derived from the government. The Usbeks having probably had few institutions of their own at the time of their conversion to Islâm, have adopted the provisions of the Mahomedan law in its utmost detail, applying it to every part of their civil government, and even of their private conduct. The revenue is collected exactly in the proportions directed in the Koran, and one-tenth of its produce is applied to alms. Justice is administered by the Kauzee in strict conformity to the Shirra: and the use of wine or even of tobacco is as strictly forbidden and almost as severely punished as fraud and robbery. The king of Bukhara's title is Commander of the Faithful. Part of every day is spent by him in teaching the Mahomedan religion, and the greater part of every night in prayers and vigils. He reads prayers in his own mosque, and often performs the funeral service for people of low rank; and Killich Ali Beg, the present ruler of Balk under the king of the Afghâns, a prince at this moment celebrated and adored all over the east for the singular excellence of his character, always walks when in the street, lest, if he rode, his feet should happen to be higher than the heads of other true believers. The present ascendency of the king of Bukhara over the tribes is the result of a long exertion on the part of the government in dividing and mixing the various tribes, and keeping the great men from all employments which might strengthen the influence derived from their birth. The same power of the government has been promoted by the influence of the Mollahs, and facilitated by the comparatively level nature of the country. Hence the tribes which inhabit the hilly country of Hissar and the marshy one of Shekr Subz, being inaccessible to the cavalry of the king, have defied his power. The Uzbeks are generally short and stout men; they have broad foreheads, high cheek bones, thin beards, small eyes, clear and ruddy com-

Appearance of the Usbeks.

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plexions, and generally black hair. Their beauty, so much dwelt upon by the Persian poets, figures chiefly from a comparison with the aspect of the Mongolians; their dress is a shirt and trowsers of cotton, a tunic over it of silken or woollen cloth bound with a girdle, and over this a gown of woollen cloth, pasteen, or felt. The head is covered with a white turban, worn in general over a calpauk. Both men and women wear boots at all hours, and bandages round their legs instead of stockings, and every man has a knife hanging from his girdle, and a flint and steel for striking fire. The women have a similar dress, but longer, with a silk handkerchief tied over the head, and the hair plaited into a long queue which hangs down from the middle of the head like those of the Chinese; they wear gold and silver ornaments, and over all throw a sheet of silk or of cotton.

Dress.

Character.

The opinion commonly entertained of the ferocity and barbarism of the Usbeks is partly owing to their being confounded with the Kalmuks; the discreditable practice of selling slaves is not confined to them; but their laws of war are certainly most barbarous; they give no quarter to any enemies, except Sheeites or infidels, whom they can sell for slaves, (for men are sold in Bukhara like cattle,) but in other respects their character does not appear to disadvantage, on a comparison with other Asiatics; they are said to be comparatively sincere and honest; they have few quarrels among individuals, and scarcely any murders; and there are few countries in the east where a stranger would be more at ease. They are far from being savage Tartars, wandering over wild and desolate regions. The city of Bukhara is equal to Peshawer in population, and superior to any town in England, except London. It contains numerous villages, capable of accommodating from sixty to six hundred students each, and which have professors paid by the king, or by private foundations: it abounds in caravanseras, where merchants of all nations meet with great encouragement, and, though the prince and people are above all others attached to their own belief, they fully tolerate all religions. A mussulman proselyted by any other

sect, is, indeed, never forgiven; hence we are informed in some recent missionary publications, that an Arabian convert to christianity, denounced by his intimate friend a few years ago, suffered martyrdom in that country. BOOK XXXVI.

Aboriginal inhabitants.

The Uzbeks, who probably have lived in this country, though not as conquerors, ever since the third or fourth century, have not however effaced all traces of a more ancient race of inhabitants. These are named the Taujiks, and are handsomer than the Tartars, both in elegance of form and agreeable expression of countenance. They approach to the people of Little Bukharia, whom they also resemble in their dress. The clothes of persons in easy circumstances are in a great measure of silk and furs. The long robes of the women exhibit wide and varied plaitings; they adorn their hair with braids of pearls. The Bukharians lead a frugal life, their food consisting chiefly of rice, wheat, millet, and, above all, fruits, such as melons, grapes, and apples; they are fond of horse flesh, but as it is expensive, beef is more generally used. They use a great deal of the oil of sesamum. Tea flavoured with anise, and the juice of grapes, are their favourite drinks. They intoxicate themselves with opium. Their bread is unfermented. The Bukharians carry no arms. The Uzbeks, on the contrary, are not strangers to the use of the musket; and it is even said that their wives, who in beauty surpass the other Tartar women, follow their husbands in war, and fight by their sides.

Mode of life.

Language.

They speak the Zagatayan language, which is the Turkish or Turcoman. But the idiom of the Bukharians, which promises a fund of curious research, has not yet been analyzed; several geographic terms have been observed in it which appear to be of Persic or Gothic origin.

Population.

Our information on the state of the population is hitherto vague. This country can probably, in a case of necessity, muster 80,000 armed men. According to Hanway's account of the revenues of Nadir, Khorasan furnished nearly a million of pounds sterling annually; and the revenue of Great Bukharia may be believed at least equal to that of Khorasan. But the income of the khans is deriv-

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ed more from their estates and their flocks than from any taxes.

Ibn Haukal, the father of the Arabian geography, has given us the following lively picture of the manners of the people of Bukharia in his time.

Character by Ibn Haukal.

"Such is the liberality of the inhabitants, that not one of them will decline the duties of hospitality. If a stranger arrives among them, they croud round him; each one wishes to have him; they dispute for the privilege; and he who obtains it becomes an object of envy. Every one, though possessing nothing more than his own necessities require, will carry to the door of the cabin in which the stranger is received a part of the fruits of his labour. The generosity of their hearts thus finds riches in the very bosom of poverty. When I was in the country of Sogd, I saw a great building like a palace, the gates of which were entirely open, and fixed back to the wall with large nails. I asked the reason, and was answered that that house had not been shut, night or day, for a hundred years. Strangers, in whatever number, may present themselves there at any hour. The master has made abundant provision for the reception of the men and their animals; he is never happier than when his guests stop for some time. Nothing of the kind have I seen in any other country. In every other place the rich and powerful lavish their treasures on the caprices of luxury, or on favourites whose whole merit is to be equally corrupt with themselves. The inhabitants of Maweralnahr make a more rational use of their economical savings. They build curavanseras, bridges, and other works of public utility. In Maweralnahr, you will not arrive at any town in the most gloomy situation, even in a desert, without finding the relief of an inn, or house of entertainment, furnished with every thing that a traveller can require. The glory of Mawerlnahr cannot be effaced by that of any other country. It has produced great monarchs and able captains. No people in the Mussulman world excels them in courage. Their num-

ber and their discipline give them the advantage above other nations, which, on the defeat of one army, find it impossible, for a long period, to raise another for their defence. If such an event occurs in Maweralnahr, one tribe is always ready to repair the losses of another."

Present state.

The civilization which was introduced with the Mahometan religion among this people has been somewhat obscured, along with their declining power and their glory.

The reports of the Russians who have penetrated to Khiwa and to Bukhara seem to show that a Christian traveller finds here insurmountable obstacles in the fanatic intolerance of the Mussulmans. But from the more recent accounts of Mr. Elphinstone, it appears that this intolerance has either been exaggerated, or is since mollified. Christians at least visiting that country from India are in no degree ill treated.

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SIBERIA.

Physical Description of the Country.

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Plan of this description.

THE style of our descriptions necessarily varies with the nature of the different countries that come under our view. There are some, as Turkey in Asia, where a great difference of elevation brings together into a narrow compass different climates, productions, and even different races of inhabitants distinct and opposite in their character. There are others where the predominance of the same physical causes over an immense territory creates a continual repetition of the same phenomena. Siberia, or northern Asia, is of this last description. Besides, while we were engaged with Syria and with Asia Minor, we were obliged to direct our attention to cities celebrated in the annals of the world. Even in Persia a small province often presented some historical interest. Here we have no such temptation. In Siberia we are without the limits of history. None of the objects in this region derive an illusory grandeur from the recollection of events long passed; nature, savage, rugged, and stubborn, still predominates over the early efforts of civilization. These vast regions may therefore be united in one physical portrait. We can glance rapidly over their topography, which is well known, being completely detailed in German and Russian works.

The ancient Greeks and Romans extended their imaginary Scythian Ocean over the space occupied by Siberia.

Ptolemy, better informed, says that a vast unknown region lay to the north-east of the Caspian Sea; but the utmost extent of ancient geography scarcely reached the Uralian mountains. In the middle age, travellers, and among others, Marco Polo, heard the Tartars speak vaguely of a country which was rich in furs, but covered with perpetual darkness. In 1242, the Tartars founded on the banks of the Irtysh and the Obi, a *Khanat*, which from its capital took the name of *Sibir*, and from a neighbouring river, that of *Tura*. The name Siberia is almost identical in pronunciation with the Russian word Seweria, or country of the north, the letter *b* in that language being pronounced like *w*; but the two terms have nothing in common in their actual etymology. The conquest of that kingdom by the Cossacks was followed by a series of discoveries* which extended the Russian power and our geographical knowledge to the eastern extremity of Asia. The name of Siberia was vaguely applied to all the newly discovered countries; it was even extended to the Tartar kingdoms of Astrakan and Kasan, long before incorporated with the Russian empire in Europe. This vague use of the name ought to be banished from geography. On reading with a little reflection the plan of a description of the Russian empire, inserted in the memoirs of the Petersburgh Academy, we shall see that this learned society considered the Uralian mountains both as naturally dividing the Russian dominions into two parts, and as fixing invariably the true boundary of Siberia. Our standard geographical authors, as d'Anville in his beautiful map of Asia, Busching in his Geography, and Georgi in his statistical account of Russia, have concurred in restricting the denomination of Siberia to the countries situated to the east of the Uralian mountains.

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Khanat of Siberia.

Extension of the name Siberia.

Siberia thus defined, is bounded on the north by the Frozen Sea, on the west by the Uralian mountains, which separate it from Europe; on the south-west by the Algy-

Boundaries.

* See the Chronological Table of Discoveries in Siberia subjoined to Book XXXVIII.

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dim-Shalo mountains, which divide it from independent Tartary; on the south, by the Altaï and Daoorian chains, which form the frontier of the Chinese empire; on the east by the eastern Ocean and Behring's Straits, which separate it from North America. Its length from west to east cannot be reckoned less than 4000 miles, and its breadth from north to south varies from 1100 to 1900. Its surface is about five millions of square miles, which is larger by two-sevenths than the whole of Europe, though this division of the world should be extended to the Caspian Sea. We proceed to describe its chains of mountains, its extensive plains, and its principal rivers.

Extent.

Mountains. Uralian.

The Ural, or Uralian mountains, which separate Siberia from European Russia, have a direction from north to south, for a space of eleven hundred miles; their breadth varies from fifty to a hundred. Possessing but little elevation at the north end, between the lower Obi on the east, and the Oosa, which runs into the Petchora on the west, they acquire a considerable height about the 60th or 58th degree of north latitude, near Solikamsk and Werchoturia. They become low and flat in the latitude of Ekaterinburg; but acquire a new elevation in the country of the Bashkeers in latitude 54° and 55°. The Pawdinskoe-Kamen has been found by trigonometrical measurement, to be 6819 feet above the level of the Caspian Sea. Several of the summits of the Werchoturian mountains are covered with perpetual snow. We are not certain if this is the case with the Bashkeer mountains.* On the whole, the Ural forms a long plateau, 4000 or 5000 feet in height, on which mountains are raised 1000 and 1600 feet in height. The structure of the northern part of the chain is little known. Limestone rocks seem to predominate. In Nova Zembla, the surface being covered with no pulverised soil, the structure is every where visible, and it perhaps may be regarded as a continuation of the Uralian formation. From 60° to 54° or 52° of latitude, they have

Height.

* Georgi Russie, I. 151.

been explored in detail in the working of mines. In ascending at Solikamsk, at Perm, or at Oofa, we first cross a chain of hills composed of sand-stone and calcareous breccia; then a chain of pure lime-stone rocks without organic remains; and, lastly, a chain of schistous mountains, principally formed of clay-slate, and hornstone slate, and containing immense quantities of iron ore, sometimes in veins and sometimes in masses. We come at last to the principal chain, which the Russians divide into the Werchoturian Ural, the Ural of Ekaterinburg and that of Bashkeer. Here granite makes its appearance every where in massive strata; sometimes the constituents of that rock, particularly quartz, as at Dchigilga, are found in large masses in a separate state. A thinly stratified granite, which our mineralogists call gneiss,* is frequent on the east side of the chain; here, as on the west, we find as we descend, schistous mountains succeeded by others of lime-stone, but the respective limits of these strata are less precise, and there is a greater diversity of rocks and of minerals. Iron is always the most abundant metal; the stratum which is worked at Blagodad is 150 fathoms in thickness; there is one hill entirely composed of magnetic iron, called *Magnetnoï wisokogora*. These mountains also contain large quantities of copper, a little gold and lead, serpentine, jasper, and crystallized marble. The two lime-stone chains of the Ural are penetrated with numerous caverns, but the tunnels† so common and so extensive on the European side, as in the neighbourhood of Koongoor and of Perm, are not found on the Siberian side.‡

Nature of the rocks.

Magnetic mountains.

Caverns and tunnels.

The Ural range throws off various small chains at its southern extremity. The Obstcheï Syrt, which passes into Europe, falls to be described in another place. The mountains of Guberlinski, a branch detached from the Ural of Bashkeer, join on the east side the mountains of

Branches of the Urals.

* See vol. I. of this work, p. 242.

† See vol. I. p. 437, 438.

‡ Hermann's Mineral Description of the Uralian mountains, vol. I. p. 41. (in German.) Pallas, Voyages en Russie, III. p. 13, 15, &c. IV. 244. (trad. in 8vo.)

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Ulu-Tau and Algydim-Shalo, which, as we have formerly seen,* separate the Kirguis steppe from that of Issim. These high lands form a link of connection between the Urals and the plateau of central Asia.

Mountains of the south of Siberia.

All the mountains of the south part of Siberia, from the Irtysh to the west side of the lake Baïkal, are only promontories or terraces, belonging to the central plateau, and the great chains with which it is crowned.† We must never lose sight of this leading principle, nor look for a connection between these little chains which has no existence.

The little Altaï.

The little Altaï range is a lower terrace of the great Altaï; this last is entirely without the limits of Siberia; the former marks its extreme frontier;‡ it extends from the river Irtysh to the Yeniseï, allowing the Dshabekan, which is the beginning of the Obi, to pass across a narrow gorge. On the south, a wide plateau separates it from the great Altaï, and on the north a valley comes between it and the metallic mountains of Kolywan. Limestone rocks predominate in every part of the little Altaï that is known; it contains coralline marble. The traveller Schangin, who has seen the summits, found on them stratified granite. The Russian mineralogists have observed in the same quarter rich mines of copper, lead, and silver, which might be worked in the event of the mines of Kolywan being exhausted.§ One of the summits measured by the barometer, was found to be 5589 feet above the hill of Schlangenberg, near the lake of Kolywan.

Metallic mountains of Kolywan.

A granitic range given off from the little Altaï stretches onward between the Irtysh and the Obi; it rises in peaks 14 or 1500 feet above the neighbouring plains. This

* See Book XXXV.

† Pallas, Considerations on the Nature of Mountains, &c. (in German) p. 29, &c. Pallas on the Orography of Siberia, in the Mélanges de Géographie Physique, vol. V. 328, &c.

‡ Georgi. I. 175.

§ Renovantz, Mineral and Geographical Description of the Altaï Mountain, (in German.)

nucleus of granite has its sides all along covered with mountains of slate and limestone, which are rich in copper, with a mixture of silver and of gold; these are the metallic mountains of Kolywan. The heights which follow the Obi on its left to its junction with the Irtysh are called the Oorman.

The Oorman.

Between the Obi and the Yeniseï are the mountains of Kutznezk, in which clay-slate predominates; they contain abundant strata of coal, some of which are said to have burned for half a century, after being kindled by lightning. The circumstance of the kindling has probably been misunderstood or imaginary.

Mountains of Kutznezk.

The Sayanian mountains, between the Yenisei and the lake Baïkal, are not so much a mountain chain as a plateau of rocks. Even the hunters scarcely ever visit this desert. Wachsmann, a surgeon who traversed it in quest of native rhubarb, found it to contain a large quantity of granite.* The plateau is divided into two lines of mountains along the banks of the Yeniseï. One of them is named after this river, the other after the town of Krasnoyar. The principal mass consists of a red granite containing copper.

Sayanian mountains.

It is on the south-west of the lake Baïkal that Siberia really begins to present a connected system of mountains. The great central chain of Asia here enters on the Russian territory, and is continued under various names to Behring's Straits. At its commencement we find a circle of lofty mountains inclosing a valley of great elevation, in which the lake Baïkal extends its deep waters over a basin of rock with scarcely any sand, and from the bottom of which pillars of granite shoot up. The Baïkalian mountains, very high on the north and west sides of the lake, seem to be principally composed of granite. Among the elements of that rock the mica often presents itself in isolated laminæ, which may be used as panes of glass; and entire mountains are formed of the quartz.

Mountains of eastern Siberia.

Baïkalian mountains.

* Georgi, I. 197.

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A less considerable link passes to the south of the river Onon, and along the Argoon. This branch, of moderate height, but singularly rich in all sorts of minerals, is called the mountains of Nertschinsk. It is rather slaty than granitic.

Nertschinsk mountains.

The principal chain runs without interruption to the north-east, separating the tributary streams of the Lena from those of the Amoor. At first possessing moderate elevation, and confounded with the hilly country surrounding the lake Baïkal, it receives the general designation of the mountains of Daooria. All this country, according to M. Patrin, is filled with volcanic traces; and on the banks of the Shilok there are two craters of extinguished volcanoes.* A little to the west of the sources of the Olekma, the chain takes the name of the Iblannoi mountain, or the "mountain of apples," on account of the rounded shape of the blocks composing it. The Mongols called them Daba, a name rather remarkable, as reminding us of the *Tabis*, a promontory which according to Pliny and Pomponius Mela bounded Asiatic Scythia on the north-east. Acquiring increased elevation, and approaching to the Eastern Ocean, it begins at the sources of the Aldan to bear the name of the Stannovoi mountains; which afterwards gives place to the vague denomination of the mountains of Okhotsk. All these appear to consist of granite and porphyry. There are also entire mountains of red and green jasper.

Daoorian mountains.

Iblannoi or Daba mountains.

Stannovoi mountains.

A detached branch runs in a line along the Olekma river, and even passes the Lena after the Olekma has joined it. These mountains are of a slaty texture. Mines of alum and of coal are found in them. They form on the banks of the Lena a singular series of pyramidal rocks.

The main chain is very little known beyond the Okhotsk. We are told that it suffers no interruption, and reaches Behring's Straits, though certainly much diminished in elevation. Different branches extend between

* Various Memoirs in the Journal de Physique.

the Lena and the Indighirka and Kowyma. The space left between these branches of mountains and the Frozen Sea is small; yet they do not reach its shore, which, according to Billings, is generally lined with low hills. Another more important branch enters the peninsula of Kamtchatka, divides this peninsula longitudinally, and is continued in the form of a chain of islands, the Kuriles, to Japan.

Mountains of Kamtchatka. Volcanoes.

These mountains of Kamtchatka, covered with perpetual snow, are at the same time full of volcanoes. There are three in an active state, that of Avatcha, that of Tolbatchik, and that of Kamtchatka, which is of very great height. Others are known, which have ceased to give out smoke and flame. To compensate this change there are other two which emit exhalations accompanied with noise, inducing the apprehension that they are about to be transformed into volcanoes. The warm springs, and the abundance of sulphur, which in several places lies in the form of gravel on the shore, afford sufficient testimony to the volcanic nature of this whole chain. These volcanoes are, as has been already observed, connected with those of Japan, of Liqueya, of Formosa, and the Philippines.

Steppes.

Having thus described the mountains of Siberia, we must turn our attention to the vast plains called *steppes*, which occupy a large portion of that country. They differ from one another in nature and in aspect. In one place they resemble the American savannahs, consisting of wide pastures covered with abundance of tall grass; in others the soil is saline, the salt appears in the form of an efflorescence mixed with the earth, or is collected in ponds or salt lakes. In general, the steppes contain many lakes, because the waters finding no declivity remain stagnant. We have already described (Book XXV. p. 48.) a steppe between the mouths of the Don and Wolga which resembles the bed of the sea. On the east bank of the Wolga another similar plain extends, called the steppe of the Kalmuks, bounded on the south by the Caspian Sea and the lake Aral, while on the

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north it is separated by the Ulu-Tau mountains from the steppe of Issim. This last belongs to Siberia. It extends to the banks of the Tobol on the north-west, and to those of the Irtysh on the east. At this last extremity it joins the steppe of Baraba. This steppe is prolonged between the rivers Irtysh and Obi, which bound it on the west, the north, and the east. It comes in contact with the Little Altaï mountains on the south. It is about 700 miles in length, and from 160 to 190 in breadth. The soil is good, and it is diversified with forests of birch. That of Issim sometimes, though rarely, presents the same aspect; and in both of them many tumuli are found containing the remains of the chiefs of Tartar or Mongolian tribes.

Steppe of Issim and of Baraba.

Between the Obi and the Yeniseï, a mountainous country separates the river of Tchoolim from the Yenisei, and forces the line of its course towards the Obi.* But this elevation seems to disappear in the neighbourhood of the town of Yenisei; and, though there are some groups of hills in the south-west part of the province of Mangaseisk which send some small rivers to the Frozen Sea, these are mere islands in the vast marshy plain which extends between lower Obi and lower Yenisei, a horrid region, where the soil is of clay almost continually in a frozen state, covered here and there with some stunted plants, and a carpeting of mosses. Yet this plain is not a continued morass. The elevated lands of the margins of the Obi when dry show horizontal beds of argillaceous stones, which without doubt compose in a great measure the subsoil of the country.

Marshy plains of the north.

The two islands of Nova Zembla are each divided from north to south by a prolongation of the Uralian mountains, but they consist chiefly of a marshy moss-clad plain. It has been lately found that there are saline lakes in these islands.

Nova Zembla.

The country between the Yeniseï and the Lena is called a steppe by the Russians; the term is vague, and often used to conceal the ignorance of the traveller. There appear to be many flat and marshy places; but there are

* Pallas, vol. III. p. 414—416. (French translation in 4to.)

thers which deserve to be considered as hilly countries. The Lena has a continuous elevation on its west bank. This, near to the confluence of the Wilooi, presents horizontal beds of a sandy and calcareous slate and clay mixed with much pyrites.* Another elevated country is found on the north-west of the lower Toongooska, and gives origin to the rivers Olenek, Anabana, and Khatanga, which run into the Frozen Sea. The country comprehended between the Yeniseï, the Angara, or upper Toongooska and lower Toongooska, presents an elevation of a remarkable description, viz. the great morass of Lis, almost equalling the Ladoga in extent, suspended as it were in the midst of hills formed of shells.

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Country to the east of the Yeniseï.

The rivers of Siberia are among the most considerable in Asia. But they flow across desert plains, from which an eternal winter banishes the arts and social life. Their waters nowhere reflect the resplendent images of celebrated cities; their banks are nowhere adorned with magnificent harbours; nor do they ever receive vessels laden with the spoils of distant climates. A vast sheet of water, sometimes bordered by a forest, sometimes by a dismal morass; some bones of mammoths driven on shore by the floods; some fishing canoes along side of countless flocks of aquatic birds; or the peaceful beaver raising his industrious dwelling without dreading the pursuit of man: this is all the variety that a Siberian river offers to the view. Savage hordes, and their ignorant conquerors have given these great currents names, of the meaning of which we can only form a random guess. The Irtysh, which is really the principal river of the system to which it belongs, has been defrauded of its due rank, and made a tributary to the Obi. The Irtysh wanders a great way on the plateau of the Kalmuk country crosses the great lake Saisan-Nor, and descends by a gorge of the little Altaï mountains. It runs 220 miles before it enters the Russian territory. Navigable from Saisan-Nor, its breadth varies from 220 to 400 yards,

Rivers.

Irtysh.

* Pallas, t. IV. p. 131, (4to.)

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Obi.

The Obi is formed by the junction of the Khatunia and the Bi, which issues from the lake Altan or Teletskoi; but the Tchabekan, which is the only stream that enters the lake, seems entitled to be considered as the source of the Obi. This river is almost doubled by its junction with the Irtysh, which is previously augmented by the waters of the Tobol and the Issim, the first of which has a course of 330 miles, and a breadth of from 60 to 200 yards. The Obi* forms a wide gulf where it falls into the sea; it is navigable almost to the lake Altun; it abounds with fish, but the sturgeon of the Irtysh is the most esteemed, the water of the Irtysh being the most limpid. When the Obi has been for some time frozen, its water becomes dirty and fetid, an effect owing to the sluggishness of its current, and the extensive marshes through which it flows; but in the spring season it is somewhat purified by the melting of the snow.

Tobol. Issim.

Yeniseï.

Next after the Obi, the Yeniseï† is entitled to our notice, a broader and more majestic stream, though its course is not so long. It is formed in the mountains, to the south-west of the Baïkal, by the junction of the rivers Sisket and Belkem, and then runs almost straight north into the Arctic Ocean. The upper Yeniseï might perhaps be considered as a tributary of the Angara, or upper Toongooska, which issuing from lake Baïkal, joins it, but surpasses it in importance and in length, and might appear entitled to give its name to the united river till it reaches the ocean.

The two Tungus-kas.

The other two conspicuous tributaries of the Yeniseï are the *Podkamenaia Tunguska, i. e.* the Toongooska beyond the mountains, and the low Toongooska, a river larger than the Rhine; both of these fall into the Yeniseï on the east side.

The Angara.

The Angara is so limpid a river, that the pebbles at the bottom are seen in a depth of several fathoms. When it issues from the Baïkal lake, its bed, generally from two to four hundred yards in breadth, is, for the space of a mile, so confined among the rocks, that the smallest boats cannot

* *Obi* is the Russian name to the Samoid *Kolla*, the Osteak *Iag*, the Tartar *Umar*.

† *Calead Ishanneses* in Tungooss; *Kem* in Mongolian and Tartar; *Gul* and *Choeck* in Ostiak.

pass along safely without the strictest precaution; and its waters, dashing against the stones, make a noise like the waves of the ocean in a storm. BOOK XXXVII.

The Selinga runs into the lake Baïkal, after receiving the Orchon and other rivers, among which is the Tula, which is more than 300 yards in breadth, and flows gently over a pavement of rocks. Selinga.

The last of the great rivers of these countries is the Lena, which rises to the west of the lake Baïkal, after having received the Witim and the Olekma, which come from the Daoorian mountains; it runs from south-west to north-east, till it approaches to Yakutsk, a very useful direction, as furnishing a secure navigation between very distant countries. From Yakutsk its direction is due north. It receives the Aldan on the east, and the Wilooi on the west. Its bed is very broad, and contains a great number of islands. Travellers in passing the Lena, ascend the Aldan, descend the rivers Maia and Yadoma, and thus complete their route to Okhotsk, on the shores of the Eastern Ocean. The Lena. The Aldan. The Wilooi.

Among the other rivers which mingle their waters with the Frozen Sea, we may remark the Tas, the Shatanga, and the Olenek, on the west of the Lena; the Indighirka on the east of that river; and the Kowyma, still farther to the east. These rivers have a considerable length of course, but their waters in the end escape our view by the inhospitable nature of the seas in which they terminate. The Olenak, Indighirka, &c.

The northern and southern shores in the east of Siberia drawing nearer to one another, so as to terminate in a sort of angle, do not afford any remarkable river, except the Anadyr, the course of which is not very long.

Siberia is not deficient in lakes. That of Baïkal is, next to the Caspian Sea and the lake Aral, one of the largest in the old continent. It is reckoned 360 miles long, and from 30 to 50 broad. Its depth varies from 20 to 100 fathoms, and is in some places more than 200. In coming to this lake from Irkutsk the view is very striking. The Russians who navigate it speak of it with a respectful Baïkal lake.

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awe; they give it the name of the Holy Sea, and even the surrounding mountains are held sacred. The waters are fresh, and extremely transparent. It freezes about November, and thaws again in May. It is subject to extraordinary agitations, being sometimes raised into high waves by a moderate wind, and at others scarcely put in motion by a violent storm in the atmosphere. This fact, sometimes viewed with superstitious admiration, must no doubt depend on the direction and duration of the winds; that is, whether they blow over it longitudinally or transversely, and whether they come from a quarter in which the mountains offer much or little obstruction. It is said to be liable to a species of intestine commotion, or boiling, by means of which vessels receive rough shocks, even when the surface is perfectly smooth. It is rather a remarkable circumstance, that seals are found in it, although these animals are never known to ascend the Yenisei and Angara. The lake has a particular species of fish, which the Russians call *soliomaska*, and which, according to Pallas, consists entirely of bones and an oily grease. The waves sometimes throw on shore a species of bitumen called mountain tar.*

Nature of its water.

Productions.

The lakes of western Siberia are less remarkable for their size than for their number. Lake Tchany, more than 80 miles in length, and in some places 50 broad, is in a part of the steppe of Baraba which is filled with lakes almost touching one another. On the map of Siberia accompanying the travels of Pallas, we count 27 lakes between Omsk, Kolywan, and Semipalatnoi, though d'Anville seems scarcely to have known of one or two. The steppe of Issim contains also a great number of lakes, among which that of Karg-Algydim is the largest. The number of small lakes in the provinces of Iset and Katharinenburg is enormous. In a space 280 miles long and 80 broad, from the banks of the Ouy to the sources of the Toora, along the eastern base of the Uralian mountains, nothing but lakes is to be seen. In the small map contained in the atlas of Professor Pallas, we count at least a hundred.

Lake Tchany.

Lake Karg-Algydim.

* Pallas's Travels in Russia, IV. p. 108—116. V. p. 220. (French translation, 870.)

Salt lakes.

Salt lakes do not belong exclusively to the sandy teppes of the southern parts. They are found even in the high and cold mountains of Daooria. They are found also among the frozen morasses of the northern shores. What is more remarkable, fresh water lakes are liable to change their qualities and become salt. Of this the lake of Scidiaishévo, in the province of Iset, between the town of Tomliask and the fortress of Zveringolofskaia, is an example.* This lake was once filled with fresh water, very shallow, and full of fish. All at once its depth increased; its waters became brackish; the fish with which it abounded died; and one half of a neighbouring forest was swallowed up by it. It is only to be regretted that these phenomena were scarcely observed by any persons except a few Tartars. The learned M. Sokolof has given an interesting description of the salt lakes of the province of Iset.† These lakes are scattered in the midst of a great number of fresh water lakes; they are liable to lose their saline impregnation, for several are known in which the salt formerly crystallized, but at present does not. In some of them muriate of soda alone is found, and some of them are impregnated with it to saturation; in others bitter magnesian salts are predominant, and others have a mixture of sulphates. Besides those already mentioned, there is, in the steppe of Issim, the salt lake Ebeloï or Bieloi, which is one of the most abundant, and furnishes the Bashkeers with very good salt. The Kirguisians come to bathe in this lake in summer, and believe that it cures them of several diseases. Between the Tobol and Irtysh, in the district of Issim, saline and bitter lakes are met with. In the middle of the steppe of Baraba, there is, among others, the famous lake Yamish, between seven and eight miles in circumference, the salt of which is extremely white, and crystallizes in cubes; the quantity of it, however, gradually diminishes.

Lake Ebeloï.

In eastern Siberia the salt lakes are somewhat less abun-

* Pallas, t. III. p. 32. (4to.) † Idem. t. II. p. 491—502, (4to.)

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dant; yet from Irkutsk to Yakootsk* the mountains are filled with salt springs, and these, in more places than one, form lakes. That of Selinginskoï was visited by Professor Pallas; it yields a bitter salt. The streamlets by which it is supplied are fresh, and the salt must have its origin in the blue slime at the bottom, and the subjacent rock.†

Lake Selinginskoï.

Soda lake.

The soda lake of Daooria, near Zizaan, is not the only one of its kind. Others are found in different parts of Siberia.

Rumbling lake.

The "Rumbling Lake" is found at a short distance from the little river of Oibat, which falls into the Abakan. Dreadful noises are heard in it, announcing some revolutions in the bosom of the earth, like those which destroyed the dykes by which the lake of Goosinoi in Daooria was formerly confined.‡

Siberia possesses several mineral waters, especially in the Altaïc and Daoorian mountains. The chain of the Urals, near Katharinenburg, gives rise to some chalybeates. In the neighbourhood of the Sea of Baïkal there are springs of naphtha and petroleum. This country is full of hot springs, the most celebrated of which are those of Kamchatka, described by Lesseps. The baths which have been built, by the liberality of Mr. Kochelew, for the use of the Kamchatdales, are formed of a rapid cascade, which falls from a height of nearly 300 feet. The current which it forms is about a foot and a half deep, and six or eight broad. The water is extremely hot, and seems to contain a quantity of sulphates and nitrates, mixed with calcareous earth. On the west of Gulf Penjina, there is a considerable spring of warm water, which falls into the river of Tavatona, and emits cloudy vapours.

Warm Springs.

Climate.

Knowing the situation and nature of the territory of Siberia, we are prepared to find that its physical climate corresponds to its latitude. Three-fourths of this country are in the latitude of Norway and Lapland. A part of the province of Kolywan, and the country round lake Baïkal, are in the

* Gmelin, Flora Sibirica, Preface. † Pallas, Voyage, tom. IV. p. 400—404.
‡ Idem. t. IV. 491—499.

atitude of London, Berlin, and the north of France. But the temperature of the most favoured parts of Siberia is not to be compared even with that of Norway. The cold in the northern part is far keener and more constant than that of Lapland, and the same intensity is sometimes experienced in the mountains on the south, in the parallels of 50° and 55°. The winter is nine or ten months long almost through the whole of Siberia. Snow often begins to fall in September, and it is no rare thing to see it in May. The corn crops, when not ripe in August, are considered as lost. They are often covered with the snow before they can be cut down. To the east of the river Yeniseï, and the north of lake Baïkal, agriculture is almost unknown. In the vast morass through which the lower part of the Obi flows, the thaw penetrates only about a foot. Near Yakootsk, under the parallel of 60°, M. Gmelin, having caused the earth to be dug on the 28th of June, found it frozen at a depth of three or four feet. The inhabitants of the fortress of Argunsk, in the parallel of 50°, say that their lands in many places only thaw an ell and a half deep, and that the subjacent frost renders the digging of wells impracticable.* At Krasnoiarsk, in latitude 56°, Dr. Pallas found the mercury of the thermometer congealed.

Extreme cold.

Eternal ice.

The summer heats of Siberia are short; but they are powerful and sudden. In the neighbourhood of Yakootsk the Tongooses often go naked in summer. The growth of wheat, and other vegetable species, is almost visible to the eye. But in the neighbourhood of the Frozen Ocean it is in vain that the solar rays continue night and day to influence a soil condemned to eternal frost. In the middle of the long day of the polar circle, a north wind is sufficient to cover the waters with a thin crust of ice, and to give a yellow and red tinge to the leaves of plants.† Their

Summer heats.

Climate of the polar regions.

* Gmelin's Travels in Siberia, II. 520—523. (in German.) Georgi, Description de la Russie, I. 88—92.

† Sujew, in Pallas's Travels, V. 113. (8vo. translation.)

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vegetation is often limited to a few days; and in that short interval the plants flower and form seed. They sometimes grow in the morasses, where at all times we find ice on raising the moss.*

Storms.

Storms are frequent in the southern parts, among the mountains; but on the banks of the Frozen Ocean thunder is scarcely ever heard, though distinct flashes of lightning are seen. In the low countries of the Yenisei, near the sea, much of the aurora borealis is seen, from the beginning of October till Christmas. In no country do these brilliant phenomena appear in greater magnificence.†

Aurora Borealis.

This rigorous climate, while it banishes luxury and indulgence, does not secure to the Siberians the privilege of the ancient Hyperboreans, who knew nothing of disease, and died only of the exhaustion of old age. It is, on the whole, favourable to the human species, but it does not exclude every cause of disease. The perpetual fogs which cover the eastern and northern coasts of Siberia keep up a scurvy in these countries. We are told that huntsmen preserve themselves by drinking, in its warm state, the blood of the animals which they have taken. Similar fogs prevail in the steppe of Baraba, and the inhabitants have a cachectic look. In the mountains of Daooria, and all round Nertchinsk, the confined air of the narrow valleys produces fevers, epilepsy, and scurvy. Some ascribe these effects in part to metallic vapours emitted by the mines, or the metallurgic operations to which the ores are subjected. In all the steppes the cattle, and still more the horses, are liable to a species of plague called Yasooa by the Tartars and Russians, which shews itself by buhoes, and by which men also are liable to be attacked. It is ascribed to an insect to which Linnæus gave the name of *Furia infer-*

Fogs.

Epidemics.

Epizootics.

* Compare Patrin, Ramond, and others, quoted in the first volume of the present work, p. 488.

† Gmelin, Flora Sibirica, Preface. Compare the first volume of the present work, p. 368—371.

*salis.** In 1785 this disease carried off nearly 85,000 horses. BOOK XXXVII.

The chief productions of Siberia remain to be considered.—This country is called the Russian Peru. But long before the name of the Russians was known, the Permians, or Biarmians, a people of Finnish, or what the Russians call *tchoode* origin, had worked extensive mines in the Uralian and Altaïc mountains, of which traces are still to be seen. It is to a Dane or a Dutchman, that the Russians, under the reign of Alexis Michailowitch, owe the first suggestion for the working of the mines. Peter I. employed German miners to open the mines of Permia and Siberia. His successors opened those of Kolywan and Daooria. PRODUCTIONS. Minerals.

The principal gold mines of Siberia are those of Berezof, in the district of Katherinburg, on the east side of the Uralian mountains. It was in 1754 that they were first worked for gold, and did not rise to any importance till the time of Katherine II. From 1754 to 1788 they yielded 1,198,000 roubles, (L.189,683,) of which, when the expence was deducted, there remained of clear profit about 800,000 roubles, (L.126,660.) The number of workmen employed in the extraction are upwards of 3000, of whom about 1200 are daily engaged.† The ore is an iron pyrites, mixed with quartz which contains gold. After all the refining processes, the gold is not perfectly pure. Twenty or thirty *zolonitks*, *i. e.* 3½ or 5 English pounds weight of gold are obtained from 500 poods, or 1250 stone weight of the crude ore. Gold is sometimes found massive, but it is generally mixed with different substances, particularly silver. These are the only mines that are worked for gold. Those of Kolywan and of Nertchinsk are considerable as silver mines; but their produce in gold is trifling. Gold mines.

Silver is rarely found in a native state, but often mixed with gold, and in one of the Daoorian mountains with Silver mines.

* Falk, Mémoires Topographiques.

† Hermann, Statistische Schilderung, p. 316—328.

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lead. The corneous silver ore, *Argentum muriatum*, is found in Schlangenberg, in the Little Altaï, where sulphuret of antimony and silver, and arsenical ore and copper pyrites also abound. From 1745, when possession was taken of these mines by the crown, till 1787, *i. e.* during forty-two years they produced 24,460 poods (61,150 stone weight) of silver, and more than 850 poods, or 2125 stone of pure gold, amounting altogether to a value of 30,000,000 of rubles (or L. 4,750,000.) The expences during this time, including the process of refining, which was conducted at Petersburgh, did not exceed 7,000,000 rubles, or L.1,109,000, giving thus a profit of 23,000,000 of rubles, or L.3,641,000, which is still more considerable when we take into account the small value of the copper money in which the expenses are paid, and which is coined in the places themselves. The silver mines of Nertchinsk, which were opened in 1704, are in Dauoria, between the rivers Shilka and Argoon. Their number is great. The ore is rich in lead, and contains but little silver, yet the silver is easily extracted. The workmen are about 2000 in number, and about 18,000 peasants are attached to the concern for the cutting of timber. From 1704 to 1787, that is for eighty-three years, these mines produced 11,644 poods of silver, (29,110 stone,) from which, after 1752, thirty-two poods of silver were separated, amounting in value to 10,000,000 of rubles, or L.1,167,000.

Copper mines.

Besides the copper mines in the Uralian mountains, there are some in the Altaï. Their produce is 15,000 poods, but is nothing compared to the riches of the Uralians. The richest mines are on the Siberian side, at Turia-Wasiliewskoï, Frolewskoi, and Ologowskoi. They are found at the limit which separates the schistous rocks from the pure limestone. There are likewise other important workings, and the whole produce of the Ural is confounded in the statistical accounts. In 1782, 190,752 poods of copper were melted, and of these 124,962 were in the government of Perm, and probably 150,000 altogether came from the Siberian side of the chain. The

copper of Siberia is exceedingly ductile. The prevailing ores in the mines now mentioned, are the red oxide and the blue carbonate. Malachite or stalagmitic copper is found here in the greatest perfection. The iron mines which are diffused over the whole of Siberia are but little worked. The peasantry smelt iron in the neighbourhood of Krasnoiarsk and Yeniseisk; but at Nertchinsk and at Kolywan, the other more valuable metals are so productive that this is despised. In the Ural mountains, on the contrary, it is the chief object. The ores are found alike on the European and the Asiatic side. Their produce in 1782, was 3,940,490 poods (9,851,225 stone weight.)

Malachite. Iron mines.

Siberia undoubtedly produces other metals; in this vast field much room is still left for mineralogical investigation. There seems to be little or no mercury. Laxmann saw crystals of cinnabar thrown on shore by the sea in the Gulf of Penjinsk. The red lead of Siberia, or chromate of lead, is found in the mines of Beresof, in a sandy and micaceous rock.

Various minerals.

Among the valuable stones of Siberia, one of the most conspicuous is the limpid and transparent topaz of the mountain of Adun-Shollon in Daooria, and of the mountain Totchilnaia, near Mursinsk, in the Ural. It has also been found in the Kirguis steppe, and on the shores of the Frozen Sea. At Mursinsk, chrysolite, in small nine-sided prisms, is met with. The Siberian beryl, or the occidental *Aqua marina*, is common both in the Daoorian and Altai mountains. A prism of it was once found, thirty inches long, and five in diameter, but it broke, these large prisms always having fissures.* The beryl and the smoky topaz are often found in the same matrice. Sometimes one of them passes through another, a phenomenon common in many minerals, and once considered as a proof of the priority of the penetrating individual, the other being formed upon it, but now better explained by the hypothesis of a contemporaneous formation, as the crystallizations are often found reciprocally to impress one another. Fine crystals of

Precious stones.

Beryl.

* Pallas, Nordische beytræge.

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quartz are not rare. Those of Tiegeruk, in the Altaï, are rose-coloured. The pretended emeralds of the Ural were undoubtedly green crystals of this species. The beautiful stones called *capilli veneris*, are very limpid crystals of quartz, containing green or red capillary schorl: they are found in the Ural. It is doubted whether the opals of Siberia are of the genuine kind, but the Siberian onyxes are very fine: chalcedonies and agates are abundant. The true garnet is scarce and dear. It is polished at Katherinburg. The Siberian avanturine is a translucent reddish or brown quartz, containing particles of mica, of a gold or silver colour. It is found in Ural, and when polished, has the appearance of mother of pearl. The rubellite, or ruby-coloured schorl, found at Sarapulka, not far from Mursinsk, is a subject of curiosity and discussion among mineralogists; and there are some contradictions in their descriptions of it. Baïkalite is amphibole crystallized in prisms. Beautiful green and blue feltspar, jasper of various colours, but in very small pieces; black and white granitelle, with green veins; black porphyry, formed on the Tcharysh in the Altaï mountains, a wall twenty feet high; very fine lazulite in the Sludenka mountains, near the lake Baikal; the transparent mica or Muscovy glass, found on the Aldon and the Mama, tributary rivers of the Lena, in plates three or four feet square, and the gathering of which forms the object of several little associations among the country people; such are the productions most deserving of mention, though much mineral treasure, no doubt, remains unknown in this vast country.

Opals.

Lazulite.

Natural curiosities.

We may remark, as one of the natural curiosities of this country, the mass of native iron found in 1749, between Abakansk and Karaoolnoi-Ostrog, a mass weighing 1680 pounds, and which, according to a tradition of the Tartars, had fallen from the atmosphere. The asbestos of the Urals also deserves mention; of this substance napery, caps, purses, and gloves have been woven, and some years ago, a schoolmaster offered to manufacture from it paper to an extent sufficient to supply all the officers of the Rus-

sian national records. We must not omit mentioning the soft and almost fluid clay called lithomarge, or "rock marrow," found on the eastern coasts, and which the Tongooses eat by itself or with milk, without suffering from it any inconvenience. Near the Ural mountains, powdered gypsum, commonly called "*rock meal*," is sometimes mixed with bread, but its effects are pernicious. In the whole of Siberia, there is found on the aluminous schistus, an efflorescence called "rock butter;" which is employed by the people as a remedy for diarrhœas and venereal complaints.*

Rock marrow.

Rock butter.

The vegetable kingdom offers less variety. In a climate so rigorous none but the most hardy plants can thrive; the oak, the hazel, the elder, the plane, and the wild apple cannot stand the Siberian winters; they disappear in the neighbourhood of the Uralian mountains, and on the banks of the river Tobol. The oak and hazel appear again, but feeble and languid, on the banks of the Argoon, at the extremity of Daooria; the lime and the ash cease about the Irtysh; the pine, which in Norway reaches the parallel of 70°, does not in this country pass that of 60°. The silver fir goes no farther than 58°. The common gooseberry bush which grows in Greenland, does not succeed farther north than Turukhansk on the Yeniseï. Potatoes diminish in size, till, at the latitude of 60° they are no larger than pease, and here the cabbage acquires no head. Notwithstanding these effects of the climate, we are not to conclude that the great Siberian rivers pass through mere barren wastes; for they are skirted with thick forests of elders, willows, elms, Tartarian maples, white and black poplars, and aspens, besides an immense quantity of different species of the pine tribe, among which we distinguish the Siberian cedar, or the *Pinus cembra*, which sometimes attains a height of 120 feet, and its rings of branches sometimes indicate an age of 150 or 200 years. It is only as far as the banks of the Yeniseï that this tree displays all its magnificence; to

Vegetation.

Siberian cedar.

* Georgi III. 202, 297. V. 126.

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the east it diminishes in size, and, beyond the Lena towards the shores of the eastern sea, becomes quite dwarfish, though still preserving its proportions. The balsam-poplar perfumes the air a great way round, and gives out by exudation its odoriferous resin. Siberia neither produces apples nor pears. The *Pyrus baccata*, or wild pear of Daooria, only yields a tasteless fruit of the size of a cherry. The fruit of the *Pyrus prunifolia*, or Siberian crab, is also small; but the berry-bearing under-shrubs, the *Rubus chamæmorus*, the *Rubus arcticus*, and the different species of *vaccinium* abound, and agreeable drinks are made from them; the steppes are covered with a kind of cherry-tree, the *Prunus fruticosa*, the fruit of which is abundant, and is used for making a kind of wine. The *Prunus Sibirica*, or Siberian apricot, which grows only in Daooria, produces a sourish fruit; the wild cherry grows in every part of Siberia, but the garden cherry becomes languid even in the neighbourhood of Issim.

Fruit trees and bushes.

Flowers.

During their short summer, these wild countries are adorned with a considerable number of beautiful plants; several of the Orchideæ, with their curious and brilliant flowers, are indigenous in the forests of Siberia; the *Ophrys monarchis*, the lily of the valley, black and white hellebore, the Siberian iris, the *Anemone narcissiflora*, the *thalictra*, violets, *potentillas*, the elegant *Astragalus montanus*, present, in many places, an assemblage of colours, or exhale a mixture of perfumes for which we should search in vain in some more southern countries. Each region of Siberia possesses some flowers peculiar to itself. The *spiræa* of the Altaï differs from that of Kamtchatka. The handsome bitter vetch, *Robinia caragana*, or Siberian pea-tree, the *Daphne altaica*, the *Sophora alopecuroides*, the dwarf almond, the *Potentilla fruticosa*, the *Asphodelus altaicus*, the *Gentiana altaica*, the *Dianthus superbus*, the *Valeriana sibirica*, are partial to the Altaï mountains, at the feet of which the blue aster, the *rosa pimpinellifolia*, and wild tulips, variegate the hills and the meadows. It is in Daooria that the most interesting riches of the Siberian

Flora of the Altaï mountains.

Of Daooria.

flora are united; there the rocks are richly coloured by two rosaceous flowers, red by the *Rhododendron dauricum*, and of a golden yellow by the *Rhododendron chrysanthemum*, along with the *Lonicera mongolica*, the *Prunus Sibirica*, and the pale stock. With this assemblage of brilliant colours are intermixed spots of dazzling white, produced by the flowers of the wild pear, the sweet briar, elder, and *Spiræa chamædryfolia*. At the bases of the same mountains grow the *Anemone pulsatilla*, the white flowered *pæony*, the yellow and the pink coloured *statice*, the *Aster sibiricus*, and twenty species of *potentilla*, and of *centaurea*; while the *Gentiana algida* displays its fine blue and white flowers at the foot of the icy alps, and the *rhodiola rosea* adorns the same morasses where the Siberian willow waves it yellow branches.* Eastern Siberia produces a great quantity of lilies; we may particularly remark the Kamtchatkan lily, and another called the *Lis savanne*, the roots of which are esculent. We may also mention the *Heracleum panacea*, and the *Heracleum sibiricum*; by drying the stems of these two plants, the Siberians procure a saccharine matter which is not in sufficient quantity to be of much utility. By subjecting the whole plant to distillation, they manufacture a strong liquor which is not at all agreeable, and only in request in Kamtchatka.†

Do. of eastern Siberia.

The true rhubarb has been sought for in vain in Siberia. The *Rheum rhaponticum* grows in the southern mountains on the east of the Yeniseï. There are three plants which may be used instead of tea, the *Saxifraga crassifolia*, which grows on the Bieloi mountains near the Obi; the *Rhododendron dauricum*, and the *Polypodium fragrans*, which grows on the high rocks of Daooria. The last of them is used as a cure for scurvy and gout.

Medicinal plants.

Gmelin has remarked, in the preface to his Flora Sibirica, that the vegetation changes its character when we pass the Yeniseï; but it is not easy to define changes of that

Different vegetable regions.

* Pallas's Travels.

† Georgi, III. (vol. vii.) p. 849.

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kind with precision. It is certain that there are many plants which do not resist the increase of cold which is felt when we pass that river; such are the *Convolulus arvensis, Campanula cervicaria, Convallaria majalis, Rhamnus catharticus,* and *Dactylis glomerata.* Pallas observes that in the vicinity of the Uralian mountains some Hungarian plants are found. In ascending the Irtysh towards the Altaï mountains, we begin to observe several species which are peculiar to Siberia, and their number increases when we pass the Yeniseï, but they only become abundant to the east of the lake Baïkal; Daooria is their real country; these same plants do not make their appearance in the flat and wooded country between the Yeniseï and the lake Baïkal. We only find here the plants which are usual in cold climates, and common even in Europe; but on the north-east of the Obi, we find several plants peculiar to the Altaï mountains.* In western Siberia on the Obi, agriculture disappears about the sixtieth parallel of latitude. In the eastern part of it, grain has not been found to ripen either at Oodskoi, which is under 55°, nor in Kamtchatka at 51°. The highest mountains of the southern frontier are too cold and too dry; thus, three-fifths of Siberia are not susceptible of any sort of culture; but the south-west parts possess remarkable fertility. On the north of Kolywan, barley gives a return of twelve, and oats of twenty fold. Buck-wheat is apt to shoot in this black and light soil; but when sown in thinner soil it gives a return of from twelve to twenty fold. The greater part of the natural order of gramineous plants which grow in Europe grow also in the south of Siberia; but only the winter rye, barley, and oats are cultivated. The Tartars who are fond of white bread have great difficulty in rearing a little wheat. Millet thrives in the west of Siberia. The Tartarian buck-wheat (*polygonum Tartaricum,*) is sown in the steppes which have been recently cleared by means of fire. One of these fields has for three or four successive years

Agriculture.

Species of grain.

* Pallas, X. IV. p. 445, 456. (translation in quarto.)

given a return of ten or fifteen fold, without requiring to be re-sown, the grain which falls during harvest sufficing for seed for the ensuing crop; but the weeds progressively increase in number. This style of agriculture is perfectly adapted to the indolent Siberians, who thrash the corn on the harvest field, and burn the straw to save themselves the trouble of removing it. If the working of mines, internal navigation, and commercial economy, have received some slight improvements in Siberia under the last three or four reigns, it is but too evident, notwithstanding the Russian panegyrics, that agriculture is in the same state as it was fifty or sixty years ago. Bell of Antermony, more than half a century back, took notice of the abundance of buck-wheat, rice, barley and oats to the south of Tobolski, and on the south side of the lake Baïkal; but the obstacles which the climate presents to the extension of agriculture have been but feebly combated. Beyond the 60th parallel of latitude, and the 112th of east longitude, (from London,) the cerealia do not succeed. In the north they are destroyed by the cold; on the east the fogs prevent them from ripening. Thus, two-thirds of Siberia are destitute of grain. The culture of potatoes begins to supply its place.

Flax, hemp, nettles.

Common flax grows in several parts of the Ural. The *Linum perenne* reaches as far as Turukhansk; hemp grows as far north as 55°. At the foot of the Altaï mountains some Tartars make thread and cloth of two species of nettles, the *Urtica dioïca* and *cannabina*.* Hops are in great abundance.

Animals.

Rein-deer.

The animal kingdom fills a great portion of the picture of this wild region. Among the domestic animals the rein-deer is the most conspicuous. We have seen that the cold zone being more extended in Asia than in Europe, the rein-deer come down to a lower latitude.† Pallas and So-

* Storch, Tableau de la Russie, t. I. p. 249.

† See vol. I. p. 520.

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kolof saw large flocks of them on the mountains bounding Chinese or Mongol Tartary, near the sources of the Onon, between 49 and 50 degrees of latitude. Thus the countries of the rein-deer and camel, which are separated by an interval of twenty or thirty degrees in the western part of our continent, touch one another, and are perhaps mingled in the countries of the east.

Its usefulness.

The rein-deer is perhaps the greatest blessing that nature has bestowed on the unfortunate nomade of the arctic regions. He yokes these animals in his sledge, drinks their milk, lives on their flesh, and clothes himself with their skins; their bladder serves him for a bottle, he makes thread of their intestines and their tendons; and he sells their horns for the purposes of pharmacy. Rein-deers are not expensive to keep, a moss which they find under the snow being almost their only food. They can dispense with a house or stable in a climate in which other animals of most robust constitution cannot live at all. But this animal does not perform so long journies as some naturalists have asserted. It is feeble, and apt to get out of breath. A yoking of rein-deers accomplishes only twelve or eighteen miles in a day. A Samoid is reckoned a rich man who has 100 or 150 rein-deers. An economical Tongoose keeps as many as a thousand; a Koriak several thousands; and we are told that among the Tchootches there are shepherds who own as many as 50,000.*

Siberian dogs.

The Siberian dog, resembling the wolf, is in some measure the companion of the rein-deer. He serves as an animal of draught, not only among the Kamtchatdales, but among the Tongooses, the Samoids, and some Ostiaks. He runs with extreme agility; but, wild and difficult to guide, he often throws himself with the sledge and his master over dangerous steeps; the equipage of the Kamtchatdales is on the whole very bad. They feed their dogs on dried fish.

It does not appear that grazing is carried to such per-

* Storch, Tableau Statistique de la Russie, t. II. p. 195.

ection as it might attain in a country so rich in pastures. Among the Siberian nations the Buriaites and the Mongols are distinguished by their numerous flocks. BOOK XXXVII.

The horses of the Mongols are uncommonly beautiful; sometimes they are striped like the tiger, or spotted like he leopard. The great nomade nations of central Asia re fond of horse flesh, and prefer it to beef. They often ry it in the sun and wind, and then eat it without arther preparation. An *aden*, or stud of a noble Mongol contains three or four thousand horses or mares. The Tartars of western Siberia have taken along with them in their migration the favourite animal of their nation, the horse. He wanders in the steppe of Barabin in immense droves. The greater part of the Siberian horses are white. The sheep are of the broad-tailed kind; but the people procure the lambs' skins which are so delicate and so well prepared, only by cruelly opening the bodies of the pregnant ewes. The black cattle of Russia transported to Siberia have diminished in size, but improved in strength. In general, the animals which belong properly to the plateau of central Asia extend more or less into the southern mountains of Siberia. The camel not only comes thither in the caravans, but he lives in Daooria with the Russian Mongols. Horses. Sheep. Cattle.

Next to North America and Southern Africa, this country is the most extensive hunting ground in the world. But the Russians have employed this resource with too great eagerness. The animals of chace now get beyond their reach, or diminish in number.* Wild animals.

The best sables are found at present in the neighbourhood of Yakootsk and of Nertchinsk; but they are in greater numbers in Kamtchatka. Different expedients are employed, but chiefly blunt arrows, for killing these animals without injuring the skin, which is often worth ten pounds on the spot. The skin of the *Canis lycaon*, or Sables.

* Prodromus floræ rossicæ, par M. Dwigubski, D.M. of the University of Moscow, Gottingen, 1804.

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black fox, sells at 1000 rubles, or nearly L. 160; and one of them often pays the tax due from a whole village. The *Canis lagopas*, or *Isatis*, the rock or ice fox,* whose colour is generally white, but sometimes bluish, inhabits the icy zone, Kamtchatka, and the eastern islands. This animal rivals the monkey in the dexterity of his mischievous pranks. The other animals that are hunted for the sake of their skins are the ermines, marmots, martins, squirrels, and others of less value. The silver-coloured squirrels of the country of the Teleoots are much esteemed. The white bear is the most formidable among the wild beasts of Siberia. The hunter nevertheless attacks him with the lance, and the stupid animal, seated on his two hind legs, allows the deadly weapon to approach. The brown bear is also common. He is destroyed by many ingenious devices. The Koriaks succeed in hanging him up on trees by a bait fixed to a strap. In the mountains they watch the path where they are accustomed to pass, and place on it a noose of a rope which has a heavy log tied to its other end. When the animal finds himself caught in this manner, he exhausts himself by dragging the weight along, or he furiously attacks the log, or throws it down a steep, and then is dragged over along with it. The ounce makes his appearance in Daooria; the lynx and the glutton are inhabitants of every part of Siberia.

The elk.

The elk is diffused over a great part of Siberia, but does not pass the latitude of 65°. It is hunted in March, when the surface of the snow begins to melt. The huntsman glides easily along with his broad wooden pattens, while the elk sinks at every step. We ought also to take notice of the *tahia*, or wild horse, in the steppes of Issim; the *koolan*, or wild ass; the *dchighetaï*, or *Equus hemionus*, a sort of mule; the stag, the roebuck, the *antelope-saiga*, the *antelope-gutturosa*, or *hydrophoba* of Daooria, the argali, or *ovis musmon*, who extends from Caucasus to Kamtchatka;

* Gmelin, Nov. Comment. Petrop. V. 358.

some wild boars on the banks of the Irtysh; the musk animal, though rare; and a great number of beavers, particularly in Kamtchatka; but as for the civet, or zibeth, of which several authors speak, naturalists do not seem to know it; perhaps the animal intended is a species of musk rat, *(sorex moschatus)* which lives not in Siberia, but on the banks of the Kama, the Samara, the Wolga, and the Don.*

Hares, rats, and mice.

Siberia possesses also various small animals worthy of notice, such as the hare of Daooria, *(Lepus tolaï)* the hare of Mongolia, or *Lepus ogotona*, which extends to the Aleutian islands; the mountain hare, which makes a regular provision of hay; the moles, and several other animals of the rat and mouse kind, among which we may mention the lemming, which often emigrates in colonies, always taking a straight direction, and the species called the *Mus æconomicus*, and the *Mus socialis*, who store up in their holes considerable quantities of onions and other esculent roots, which the Siberian diligently searches out to apply them to his own use.

Insects.

Both inhabitants and travellers here are tormented with insects; the air is darkened with mosquitoes, and, notwithstanding the intense cold, the houses are infested with bugs. The *Blatta indica*, or kakerlak, introduced from more southern parts by Kiachta, has spread to the banks of the Wolga. It has not been found possible to propagate the bee in Siberia.

Birds.

This country abounds in excellent winged game, such as wild ducks, geese, swans, water-hens, wood-cocks, and partridges. Among the birds of passage we distinguish the polar goose and the *Anas glacialis*. Eastern Siberia and Kamtchatka possess a species of goose, the *Anas grandis*, which lives at sea, and is sometimes thrown on shore in thousands.

It is surprising that the Russians do not attempt any whale fishing in that part of the Frozen Sea which lies east from Nova Zembla, and which is, perhaps, only a long

* Sterch, t. II. p. 34.

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strait. Herrings and other fish, as well as the great cetaceous tribes, must abound in that sea. The Samoides are the only fishers in it; they catch in the Gulfs of Obi, and of Kara particularly, the *beluga de mer* or *Delphinus leucas* which measures three fathoms in length, as well as the *Delphinus orca*. They fish in large quantity the *Salmo nasus* and the *Salmo autumnalis*, the last of which ascends from the Frozen Sea into all the rivers with stony beds, as the Yenisei, the Lena, and others to the east, but does not enter the Obi, which has a slimy and earthy bottom; the case is the same with the white trout.

Fishes of the Obi, Yenisei, &c.

In compensation for this, the Obi produces very large sparlings, numberless swarms of sturgeons, white salmon, pikes, eels, and eel-pouts; besides many of which we only know the Russian and Ostiak names, requiring from the naturalist long discussions. Many of these fish ascend from the sea; others come down from the lakes and smaller streams; they are almost all obliged to quit the Obi on the approach of winter, before its waters become corrupted under the ice. This putrefaction arises solely from the marshy quality of the soil, and the slowness of its course; some also ascribe it in part to the saline particles brought down by the Irtysh and the Issim; this is not so well substantiated. The waters of rivers which run over a pebbly bed continue pure at their mouths; several species of fish live in these parts alone. The putrid waters disappear in the spring, when the melting of the snow supplies the river with fresher and better water. The waters of the Irtysh being somewhat calcareous, maintain excellent sturgeons. The sterlets and eel-pouts of that river are very large. The Yenisei, the Lena, and the other rivers of eastern Siberia, abound in salmon and trout.

Fish of the Eastern Sea.

The fisheries of the coast, and among the islands of the ocean, are very rich, and very remarkable even considered as an article of physical geography. The sea between Mantchooria, Siberia, Kamtchatka, and the Kurile islands, is a real Mediterranean. The sea lying between Asia, America, and the Aleutian islands, partakes very much of the same character. In these two ichthyological regions

are seen numberless shoals of those singular animals which hold an intermediate place between quadrupeds and fishes, as whales, sea-bears, sea-wolves, manatis, and sea-otters. Our account of these is reserved for the description of Russian America.

Such is the picture which the physical geography of Siberia at the present time presents; but it must have been different at an epoch when large herbivorous animals, similar to those of the torrid zone, occupied rich pastures, which must then have supported them in this country, and which presuppose a very mild temperature. We have already called the attention of our readers to the numerous remains of elephants and rhinoceroses, and other animals of the torrid zone, which have been found in Siberia along the Issim, the Irtysh, the Obi, and the Yenissei, and on the very shores of the Frozen Sea.* The bodies of these quadrupeds are found mixed with sea-shells and bones which appear to be skulls of the largest inhabitants of the ocean;† they are met with along the river sides, and in beds of earth, and seldom, if ever, in a pebbly stratum. The Liaikhof islands are composed entirely of sand and the bones of elephants, rhinoceroses, and mammoths or Siberian elephants, quite entire, with part of the skin in a good state of preservation.‡

Remains of Animals of warm climates.

These astonishing remains of an animal population foreign to the present climate of Siberia have given rise to various conjectures. It is unnecessary to refute the learned Bayer, who wished to consider them as belonging to elephants which accompanied the Mongolian and Tartar armies. The immense number of bones found is adverse to such a theory, although no admixture of the

Hypotheses on these subjects.

* See vol. I. p. 276, 283.

† Acta Petropolitana, 1773. t. XVII. p. 582. Compare Pallas, Voyages, t. II. p. 10, 377, 403. t. III. p. 84, 106. t. IV. p. 50, 379, 459.

‡ Ibid. IV. p. 130. Adams's Journey to the Frozen Sea, in the Ephemerides geogr. of Weimar, XXV. p. 259, &c.

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remains of marine animals had been present. Pallas thinks that they may have been carried to their present situation by a deluge; but they present no trace of having been rolled or dragged along for any length of way. These circumstances concur to make us consider them as the remains of animals which had lived in the very places in which they are found. But how could these animals have subsisted in a country so barren and so cold? For the solution of this problem, it has been supposed that Siberia must have been at one time much more temperate and fertile than now. Was this owing to a different position of the ecliptic, producing a different state of the terrestrial zones? Geometricians and astronomers are not inclined to admit the possibility of any such alteration in the astronomical position of the globe. There is another fact which is worthy of mention, that though we should not expect in Siberia the wonderful activity of the madrepores which in the equatorial seas rear new islands, yet the lake of Kamyschlowa, on the right bank of the Irtysh, not far from Petropaulofsk, is encircled with successive banks of coral, and, according to some authors,* it would appear that the madrepores even still continue to form new banks. A more full investigation of this fact might throw a great light on the physical history of the globe. Perhaps, as these madrepores retain their activity in cold seas, or may belong to species differently constituted in their relations to temperature; so the large quadrupeds may, in like manner, have been different species which were adapted to a Siberian climate, and lived on a vegetation which, though not vigorous, was extended over a wide territory. With regard to the accident which may be supposed to have brought so many to deposit their bones in the same heap, it is a difficult problem, but as a point of conjectural physical history it is not limited to Siberia.

* Georgi, III. 1041.

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SIBERIA.

Its Nations, Provinces, and Towns.

WHEN we mean to give a description of an extensive country in detail, it presents itself in two different points of view, which have two corresponding modes of subdivision. It may be divided into governments, provinces, and districts. It may also be divided according to the nations which inhabit it. The one of these methods is that of chorography; the other, that of ethnography. We usually begin with the first. In the present instance we shall begin with the last, as an order fitted to impart both greater clearness and greater interest to our descriptions.

Siberian, Cossack, and other nations.

The Russians, Cossacks, and other colonists from Europe, inhabit chiefly the towns and military stations of Siberia. Some of them are descended from the soldiers employed in the conquest of the country; others are criminals sent thither in banishment. To these two classes are to be added adventurers, deserters among the peasantry, and ruined merchants who have sought here the means of repairing their fortunes. These different classes of colonists, burying themselves in a vast desert, have joined to their original grossness that which is gene-

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rated by a savage climate. But, if ignorance, indolence and drunkenness often encroach on their happiness, we find them praised by travellers for their generous hospitality, their frank gaiety, and the good order which prevails among them. Only a century ago the Siberians were considered as so savage a race, that Peter the Great conceived that he could not inflict a severer punishment on his mortal enemies the Swedes than to send them to Siberia. The consequence was, that these honourable exiles introduced into that country the customs and the manufactures of Europe. While employed in ameliorating their own situation, they civilized the people among whom they came. The Swedes founded, in 1713, the first school at Tobolsk; there they taught German, Latin, French, geography, geometry, and drawing. In 1801, Mr. Kotzebue found in that place people who studied the Russian, French, and German literature, and saw his own plays acted on a public theatre.* These were symptoms of the extended progress of the Siberians in the cultivation of the mind. At the same time, the governors, and the civil and military officers have introduced into the Siberian towns the manners of Petersburg, with the Russian vanity and ostentation. Mr. Lesseps saw elegant carriages rolling along the streets of Irkutsk. But this refinement of the manners of the Siberians has not had an opportunity of extending to the small towns and the villages which are sadly scattered in the midst of vast forests. Some farmers, rich in flocks, scarcely know the use of money, and lead a life altogether patriarchal. The hunters, ranging the deserts, are transformed into a sort of savages. The frozen ground serves them for a bed; they quench their thirst with the berries of the thickets; they even drink the blood of the animals immediately after they are shot. The Cossack who, at Tobolsk or at Irkutsk finds himself confounded with the populace, becomes a sort of monarch when sent among the

Progress of civilization.

Life of agriculturists, hunters, &c.

* Kotzebue's Account of the most remarkable year of his Life.

Samoids or the Yookaghires to collect the taxes, and to maintain the social order of the country. He has a cottage for his palace, and a corporal's staff for a sceptre; the delicacies of his table consist in salmon, the flesh of the rein-deer, and the heads of bears. Some Cossack families established in the towns have obtained the rank of *dvoriaisin*, or patrician nobles.*—The merchants of Siberia are chiefly itinerant, going from town to town, and from market to market.—The number of Europeans established in that country, and of Siberiaks, or descendants of Europeans, amounts at present to half a million.

Tartar colonies.

The numerous Tartar colonies occupy the south part of the government of Tobolsk. Those removed farthest to the east are the Biriusses, the Katschinzi or Katschinians, and the Beltires. These three tribes, more or less mixed with Mongolian blood, live in the neighbourhood of Abakan, a river which falls into the Upper Yeniseï. The Katschinians are rich in cattle. Their beardless visage indicates a mixture of Mongolian blood. They have among them some dextrous magicians, who dress like the French.† In the south the Sayanians occupy the high mountains of that name. These nomades have some features of resemblance to the Mantchoos.‡ A tribe of Teleootes, or Telengutes, lives in the neighbourhood of Kutzneesk; the greater part of them live in the Kalmuk country. The Russians call them white Kalmuks. Some of them who have been obliged to submit to baptism still neglect the greater part of the ceremonies of the Greek church. Their language is half Mongolian.§ In going down the rivers Tomsk and Tchulym, we find two Tartar colonies, called after the names of these rivers. The Tchulym Tartars speak a dialect consisting of Tartar,

Biriuss, Katschinians, &c.

Sayanians.

Teleootes.

Tartars of Tomsk, Tchulym, &c.

* Georgi, Russie, II. (vol. 4to.) 1009.

† Pallas, Voyages en Russie, IV. 580. 4to.

‡ Gmelin's Travels, IV. 370. 8vo. (in German.)

§ Georgi, Description of Russian nations, II. 240, in German. Vocab. Petropolit. No. 101.

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Buriaite-Mongolian, and some Yakoot words.* Among various insignificant tribes, we may mention the Abinzi, who call themselves in the singular number *Aba*, and in the plural *Abalar*. They live among the Telengootes.

Barabintzi.

In passing the Obi we find the Barabinians, (Barabintzi,) who live by fishing and their flocks, in the great steppe known by this name. Some of them are Mahometans, and the rest pagans.

Tartars of the Obi, Tara, &c.

The Tartars of the Obi live along the left bank of that river, as far as the environs of Narym. Those of Tobolsk live on the two banks of the river of this name, from the frontier all the way to its mouth. The Taralians, in the district of Tara, speak the same dialect as the preceding. The Turalinzi or Turalinians, the most civilized of all the Tartars of Siberia, inhabit the towns and villages situated on the banks of the Tara, from the mountains till it reaches the Tobol. They were forcibly baptized in the river by Philoppei, a nobleman or ecclesiastical dignitary, assisted by a body of Cossacks.

Manners of the Tartars.

The constitutions of the Tartars are generally robust and vigorous. Their simple mode of life, their frugality, and their cleanliness, protect them from the greater part of contagious and malignant diseases, excepting the small-pox, which has at different times spread terrible ravages among them. The cleanliness and temperance of this people chiefly depend on their religion. The Koran enjoins them to wash themselves several times a-day.† By forbidding the use of spiritous and vinous liquors, it secures them from the consequences of Russian drunkenness. The commandment which prescribes abstinence is less favourable to health. The Tartars observe 205 fasting days in the year. The whole number of Tartar tribes may amount to a population of 100,000.

Mongolian tribes.

We now proceed to mention such Mongolian tribes as have fallen under the Russian sway. The true Mongols

* Vocab. Petrop. No. 96.

† "Il donne même des préceptes que les femmes son tobligées de suivre dans les accidens propres à leur sexe."

live about Kiachta and Selinginsk, and are in small number. The Booriaites, or Barga-Buratt, a great Mongolian race, have peopled almost the whole province of Irkutsk, and that of Nertchinsk; they are computed at 98,000 souls.* In their exterior the Booriaites resemble the Kalmuks. There is a greater proportion of fat people among them; they have still less hair, and many of them have no beard whatever. Their complexion is pale and yellow. They are deficient in corporal strength; a Russian of the same age and size with a Booriaite is a match for several of them in wrestling. The Booriaites, however, enjoy good health, though they seldom reach an advanced age. The small-pox, once destructive to this tribe, has stopped its ravages since the establishment of an institution for inoculation at Irkutsk. The itch is very prevalent among them, and promoted by their manner of living and clothing. To the east of lake Baïkal they make use of warm baths in chronic diseases. Their physicians are *shamans* or sorcerers, who attempt to cure them by sacrifices and talismans rather than by natural remedies. The Booriaites speak a very rude dialect of Mongolic, rendered unintelligible by frequent transpositions and changes of consonants.† Booriaites.

The third race of indigenous inhabitants of northern Asia is that of the Tongooses, who call themselves Œvœn. The Chinese call them Solon,‡ and the Yookageers Erpeghi. They have a common origin with the Mantchoos. The Tongooses are distinguished by their regular conformation. They are usually of a middling size, limber, and well made. Their countenance is less flattened than that of the Kalmuks; with small and lively eyes, the nose well proportioned, the beard thin, the hair black, and the expression agreeable. The Tongooses are subject to few diseases; yet they seldom attain old age, which proceeds Tongooses, or Œvœn. Constitution.

* Heym, Encyclopédie Russie, p. 219, (edition of 1783-5.)

† Fischer's History of Siberia, I. p. 33. Gmelin's Travels, III. p. 370. Georgi's Description of the Russian nations, IV. p. 420. (all in German.)

‡ Fischer's History of Siberia, I. 465, note 16. Pallas, Mémoires Histor. sur les Mongols, I. p. 2, (in German.)

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from their climate, and their laborious and dangerous mode of life. Sometimes the small-pox makes terrible ravages among them. The priests of their idolatry are their physicians. Among the Tongooses the senses of sight and hearing are incredibly acute; the organs of taste, smell, and touch are less sensible. These nomades are well acquainted with every tree and every rock within their district. They can point out with certainty a road of a hundred miles, by describing the stones and trees which occur in it; and can give sure directions to travellers. They follow the game by the slight marks which their steps leave on the grass or on the moss. They have never submitted to the rite of baptism. Their religion is a branch of Shamanism. Their supreme divinity is called Boa. Polygamy is allowed among them. Their princes are called Tai-Sha, a term which appears to be Mongolic. The language of the Tongooses is a dialect of Mantchoo, with a mixture of Mongolic words, chiefly consisting of such as denote objects relating to civilized habits.* The Tongoos language comprehends eight or ten dialects.

Mode of living.

Religion.

This tribe pitches its moveable dwellings over a third part of Siberia. It extends from the banks of the Yenisei to the Sea of Okhotsk. On the south side it occupies the east part of Daooria. These Tongooses are good horsemen, excellent archers, brave and robust. Another tract of the country inhabited by the Tongooses extends between the Lena, and the Yeniseï, as far as the lower Tongooska. Like their neighbours the Samoides, they are poor. Those on the Lena, called Olenians, live by the rein-deer, and the produce of fishing and hunting. Their name is from Olena, the Russian word for the rein-deer; lastly, the Lamutes, or shoremen, from *Lama*, the sea, in the Tongoos language, occupy the province of Okhotsk, as far as the limits of the Koriaks. Their entire number amounts only to 24,000 persons.†

Different Tongoose tribes.

* Vocab. Petropol. No. 138—145. Georgi's Travels in Siberia, etc. I. 268—271, (in German.) Billing's Travels, abridged by Sauer, p. 387. (in German.) Fischer, Histoire de Siberie, introd. p. 116.

† Heym, loc. cit.

At the base of the Uralian mountains of the north, and on the lower Obi, we find some tribes of Finnish extraction, and perhaps originally from Europe, for we have no proof that the Finnish nation was originally Asiatic.

Wogools.

The Wogools, who live between the Tobol, the Berezof, the Obi, and the Uralian mountains, are under the middling stature. They have generally black hair and little beard. Their principal business is the chace, in which they display singular agility and address, and manage equally the musket and the javelin. They also excel in laying all sorts of toils for deer. They call themselves *Mansi;* their language is very mixed.*

Ostiaks of the Obi.

The Ostiaks of the Obi, who are likewise of Finnish extraction, form one of the most numerous tribes of Siberia, reckoning about 30,000 males. The name of Ostiak, which signifies stranger, has been given by the Tartars to three different tribes. The Ostiaks of the Obi, named Mansi by the Wogools, assert that they are descended from the Permians. Before submitting to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation; and from their descendants the chiefs of the tribes are still taken. This people has no alphabet. They can count no higher than ten, which is also the case with the other Finnish tribes. They possess the country from Surgut to Berezof and Obdorskoi.

Manners and customs of the Ostiaks.

The Ostiaks, says a Russian traveller, Souyef,† are small and feeble. Their physiognomy has no distinguishing characteristic. Their hair is generally of a reddish or a light yellow cast. They wear a tight dress, which is made of skins and furs. The men make a mark upon their skin, the women sew figures on the backs of the hands, the fore arm, and the fore part of the leg. Their summer cabins are of a pyramidal form; the winter ones are square, and built of wood. The Ostiaks are properly fishermen, but

* Georgi, Description des nations Russes, I. 65. Compare with Adelung's Mithridates, I. p. 539.

† Dans le Voyage de Pallas, t. IV. p. 51—88, (4to.)

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in winter they make great hunting expeditions. The rich possess flocks of rein-deer. Nothing is so dirty and disgusting as their appearance and manner of living; yet they enjoy good health. They generally die of scorbutic, nervous, and other chronic diseases. The Ostiaks are still pagans. In swearing allegiance to a new emperor, they are made to go on their knees before a bear's skin, or an axe with which a bear has been killed; each Ostiak is presented with a piece of bread on the point of a knife, and takes his oath in the following terms: "If in the course of my life I become unfaithful to my Czar, if I do not pay my tribute, if I desert my canton, &c. &c. may a bear devour me! may the morsel of bread which I now eat suffocate me, this axe cut off my head, and this knife pierce my heart!" This is a ceremony used among all the idolatrous people of Siberia. The bear enjoys among them a religious veneration. They make sacrifices before going out to hunt this animal; and after having killed one, they celebrate his memory by an expiatory fete, and by songs addressed to his manes.*

Veneration for the bear.

Tribes of the Samoid race.

It is thought that the whole Samoid race has moved down the course of the Yeniseï; for there are still found from the upper Yeniseï and the Abakan to the west end of lake Baïkal some weak tribes which speak dialects which have a great mixture of Samoid words, or which even belong entirely to that language. Such are the Soyetes, who are said to be numerous in Chinese Mongolia; the Kaibales, who leave the dead bodies of their children exposed on the trees, and who dispute with the mountain hare the heaps of hay provided by that intelligent animal; the Matores, the Karagasses, the Kamachinzes, and lastly, the Ostiaks of Narym.† It might appear natural to consider the Ostiaks of the Yeniseï or of Pumpokol as a link of that chain; but it appears that this tribe of hunters has form-

Soyetes.

Kaibales.

Karagasses

* Georgi, Decr. des nat. Russes, I. 21.

† Fischer, Histoire de la Siberie, I. 137, 168, 170, &c.

d for itself a peculiar jargon, which defies the researches f historians.*

Samoids.

The Samoids properly so called occupy an immense xtent of territory, covered with heath and morass. They re bounded in Europe by the river Mesen, about 42° of ast longitude; and in Asia they go as far as Olenek near he Lena, and almost under the 117th meridian. It is a pace of 2070 miles in length, and from 270 to 550 in breadth.

Physical constitution.

The ordinary stature of the Samoids is from four to five feet; they are generally squat, with very short legs, a large and flat head, a flat nose, the lower part of the face very projecting, a wide mouth, large ears, and a very scanty beard; their eyes are small, black, and angular;† to these attractions they add an olive coloured skin shining with grease, hair black and bristly, which, though small in quantity, they arrange with great care. The women have an easy shape and mild features. They arrive very early at the age of puberty. The greater part of the girls are marriageable at eleven or twelve, but they have few children, and they cease bearing before thirty. These people, who may be called the Hottentots of the north, only use their tame rein-deers for drawing their sledges; they use the wild rein-deer for food. Equally dirty as the Ostiaks, they are richer and better clothed. Their only worship is a gross form of fetichism; a stone or a piece of wood is the object of their adoration, or rather of their superstitious attention. They carefully avoid pronouncing the names of the dead.‡ Their magicians are adroit jugglers, who will plunge a knife into their bodies without being wounded. Acting the part of inspired persons, many of them become really phrenitic. Some of these sorcerers, at the least touch or look, are seized with a kind of madness,

* Adelung, Mithred. I. 580.

† Storch, Tableau de la Russie, p. 405. Souyef, Voyage de Pallas, IV. p. 190, (in 4to.)

‡ Wasili Krestinin, Observations on the Samoides, in Busse's Journal of Russia, I. p. 291, &c. 371, &c. II. 83, &c. 245, &c. (in German.)

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roll upon the ground, utter loud howlings, and even attempt to kill those around them with any weapon they can find. The Russians, who are accustomed to see these savage people, tell us that the magicians inspire them with a sort of terror. The women are extremely unhappy and despised; considered as impure beings, they are obliged to perfume themselves before passing the threshold of the cabin. The amusements of this wandering people consist in dances, in which they keep time to a nasal sort of song. Divided into different tribes, among which the Obdorians and the Iooraks are the most remarkable, the Samoids do not amount altogether to 20,000 persons; but placed out of the tract of conquerors, they have preserved their language, which resembles no other, in an unmixed state.* They give themselves the name of *Mnetx*, as applied to their nation. Their term for the men as opposed to women is *Chosovo*.

Women.

The Yakoots, who live to the east of the Samoids, in the neighbourhood of the town of Yakootsk, and on the banks of the Lena all the way to the Frozen Sea, appear to be degenerated Tartars, who have withdrawn themselves from the power of the Mongols by emigrating to distant countries. They call themselves *Socha*, in the plural *Sochalar*; there is still among the Tartars of Krasnoiark a branch which bears this name. The Yakoots, contrary to the custom of their neighbours, wear long hair, and short and open dresses. In dirtiness they yield to none; for a grave author assures us that the mortars which they use for bruising their dried fish are made of cow dung hardened by the frost. Their number in all amounts to 84,000 persons.

Yookaghirs.

The Yookaghirs inhabit the mountains in which the Indigirka and the Kowyma take their rise. They consist of 500 families, all baptized, who live by the chace and the produce of their rein-deer. We do not well know whether they should be numbered among the Samoids or

* Vocabul. Petropol. No. 120—129.

among the Yakoots, or be conjoined with the tribes which are next to be enumerated.*

Tchooktches or Tchoukotches.

The Tchooktches possess the very eastern extremity of Asia, on the east side of the Yookaghirs, and on the north of the Koriaks. They consist of a thousand families at the utmost, who are generally found in small camps near the rivers. Their tents, of a square figure, consist of four poles supporting a roof of rein-deer skins. In front of each tent lances and arrows, fixed in the snow, are at hand to repel the sudden attacks of the Koriaks, who, though belonging to the same race, often annoy them with perfidious warfare. In the middle is a stove; and their bed consists of small branches of trees laid on the snow and covered with wild beasts skins. Their dwellings are dirty, and their food disgusting. The dress of the women consists of a deer's skin hung from the neck, so that by untying a single knot they are completely naked. The Tchooktches have large features, but they have not the flat nose nor the small eyes of the Kamtchatdales. Lesseps says that their figure has nothing of the Asiatic form, and Captain Cook had previously made the same observation. The Tchooktches, are able slingers, and display much courage and address in whale fishing, which they conduct in the European manner, without having received instructions from that quarter.

Manner of living.

Different tribes.

The Shelagi, near the cape which bears their name; the Ashushalat, and the Peyeskoli, on islands of the Frozen Sea which are little known, belong to the family of the Tchooktches.

Koriaks.

The Koriaks, whose number does not amount to 2000, live by their rein-deers or by hunting, near the rivers of Anadyr and Olutora. The Olutorzi (the Lutores of Witsen,) speak a smooth language, but in general the idiom of the Koriaks approaches both to that of the Tchooktches and to that of the following tribe.†

* Georgi, III. 328. Sauer, Voyage de Billings, 387, &c.

† Steller's Description of Kamtchatka, 59—71, (in German.)

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The Kamtchatdales, whose number diminishes so fast that in a little time the whole tribe will probably be extinct,* are a people of short stature, with firm shoulders, a large head, a long and flat countenance, small eyes, small lips, and little hair. The Kamtchatdale women have fine skins, very small hands and feet, and a tolerably well proportioned shape. This people is subject to few diseases; several lame persons are to be seen among them, a circumstance probably owing to their labours and perilous undertakings. Their most common complaints are scurvy, and diseases resulting from immorality; the latter were known before the Russians came among them; they have no physicians. The glare of the snow subjects them to frequent inflammations of the eyes. The small-pox, like the plague, carries off entire generations; yet inoculation has been long used among them; they perform the operation on themselves with a fish-bone. Their sexual temperament is keen, which is ascribed to their fish-diet; and their tendency to libertinism is not repressed by the severity of the climate. The Kamtchatdales of the south have their *isbas*, or *balangans*, that is to say their winter and summer cabins, raised on stages twelve or thirteen feet high, for the purpose of drying their fish, which is almost their whole support. They wear next their bodies a cotton shirt, with wide pantaloons of deer-skin; their boots are of tanned leather, and their caps of fur. The chief occupation of the men is fishing. In summer the women go into the woods to gather vegetables, and during this occupation they give way to a libertine phrenzy like that of our ancient Bacchanti. They travel on a light carriage, on which they sit side-ways, and instead of the rein-deer, they are drawn by dogs of a breed very similar to our shepherd's dog. In the north of Kamtchatka, the cabins are subterranean excavations, which retain the heat with advantage;

Kamtchatdales.

Inoculation.

Dwellings.

* Krusenstern's Voyage round the World, II. 270, (original German edition.)

but the confinement and exhalations generate an atmosphere which is insupportable. BOOK XXXVIII.

We now proceed to give an account of the provinces and towns of Siberia. PROVINCES AND TOWNS.

The province of Ekaterinburg belongs to the government of Perm, the greater part of which is situated in Europe. It occupies the eastern declivities of the Uralian mountains. Ekaterinburg consists of 2000 houses, and is the seat of general administration for the mines. Irbit is famous for a great market for conducting the commercial intercourse between Europe and Asia. Province of Ekaterinburg.

The district of Troïtsk, containing a town of the same name, belongs to the government of Orenburg. The town is a rendezvous for Kirguisian caravans. District of Troïtsk.

The GOVERNMENT OF TOBOLSK extends along the banks of the Obi, the Irtysh, and the Tobol. We begin with the district of Tobolsk, situated on the junction of these three rivers, in the midst of an immense plain, intersected by some lines of elevated rock. The climate is on the whole severe, yet the summer heats are considerable. It is not an uncommon thing to see the thermometer rise to 90° or 95°. Storms are frequent in this quarter; and the rains are very heavy. The cold is as severe in winter as the heats are powerful in summer, the thermometer often falling to 30° below zero; yet the climate is very healthy. Venereal complaints and intermittent fevers are the only two prevailing diseases. There is no such thing as a fruit tree. The government garden, certainly the finest in the country, exhibits them only in paintings on the walls. The pea-tree of Siberia, or *Robinia caragana*, the birch, and above all, the black elder, *Rhamnus frangula*, are the favourite trees of the inhabitants of Tobolsk. There are some red and green gooseberries. Every kind of grain succeeds; the grass is thick and juicy; the soil, every where black and light, stands in no need of manure. The peasantry, too idle to remove the dung of their stables and GOVERNMENT OF TOBOLSK. Climate. Productions.

BOOK XXXVIII.

cow-houses from time to time, are sometimes obliged to pull them down and build others, on account of the inconvenience attending the enormous accumulation.

City of Tobolsk.

Tobolsk, situated on the left bank of the Irtysh, and opposite to the confluence of the Tobol with that river, is considered as the capital of all Siberia.* It is the place of residence of a governor and an archbishop. The upper city is 223 feet higher than the lower, and they communicate by an ascent of 290 steps. The numerous domes and steeples of this place give it a magnificent appearance at a favourable distance. The governor's palace in the citadel is an agreeable resting point to the eye, but having been burnt down, it only shews well at a distance. The streets are laid with timber; the houses are generally of wood, but handsome; the population, increased by a flourishing trade, amounts to 16,000 or 17,000 souls. The inundations of the Irtysh and Tobol sometimes lay the country under water for twenty-six miles round the city. On such occasions it can only be entered by water, and the streets are covered with boats and rafts in which business is transacted. "Tobolsk," says Kotzebue, "is surrounded with rocks, which have been marked in a picturesque manner by the torrents. From these we may see, during the rains, the immense surface of the waters which inundate the neighbourhood, to the borders of the thick forests which on all sides appear in the horizon. There the eye of the exile is fixed on each sail which appears, and where, in imagination, he figures his family coming to participate in his misfortunes.

Ruins of Sibir.

Sibir was the capital of the Tartars while they ruled Siberia; that city was situated about ten or eleven miles from Tobolsk, on the little river Sibirka. It is with difficulty that some obscure ruins of it can now be found.

At Demianskoi-Yam a travelling stage on the Irtysh, north from Tobolsk, cabbage ceases to form a head,

* See Hermann's Memoirs of Science, Economy, and Statistics, (in German) I. p. 23, 100, for a description of the government of Tobolsk.

producing only some scattered leaves. At Samarofskoi-Yam, a little above the confluence of the Irtysh and the Obi, the rigour of the climate becomes too severe for horses to endure. We then enter on the vast district of Berezof, which extends to the Gulfs of Kara, of Obi, and of Taz, a space two or three times larger than Finland or Norway, and situated under the same latitudes, but two or three hundred times less populous. The summer heats of Berezof, at the parallel of 64°, are of short duration but powerful, and are suddenly followed by the cold weather. The frosts generally begin at the end of August, and the ice of the Obi never breaks up till the end of May. There is no agriculture, yet some leguminous species succeed. The forests are composed of birch, pine, and Siberian cedars, all stunted. Aquatic birds and fish are abundant. BOOK XXXVIII.

The country on the mouth of the Obi, called Obdoria, is still more wretched. The ground scarcely thaws to a depth of eighteen inches, even during the long day of summer. Nothing is to be seen but morasses overgrown with all kinds of rushes, mixed with small plants of a diminutive willow, the dwarf large-leaved birch, the marsh cistus, the *Andromeda*, and the *Arbutus alpina*.* On the Uralian mountains, where the elevation is not great, there are larches six feet high, alders and willows in the state of underwood, and sometimes forming small trees. On the borders of the ocean two species of bramble are almost the only plants to be found. Obdoria. Arctic vegetation.

The district of Surgoot, to the south-east of Berezof, and north from Tobolsk, contains elevated lands, covered with marshy forests, where sables, foxes, and martens, formerly abounded. Surgoot is a small town on the Obi. District of Surgoot.

The district of Turinsk, situated to the west of Tobolsk, contains arable lands. Provisions here are very cheap. The chief place, Turinsk on the river Tura, is a considerable town for that country. Of Turinsk.

* Souyef, in Pallas's Travels, t. IV. p. 29.

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It was at Pelym, north from the preceding, that the celebrated Field Marshal Munnich passed twenty years of his life, formerly so active, and then so useful to barbarous and ungrateful Russia. "The woéwodat of Pelym," says Munnich himself, "is covered with marshy forests, which cannot be traversed in summer with any sort of carriage. In winter, people pass along by means of pattens five feet long, six or seven inches wide under the feet, and covered with rein-deer skins to prevent them from sliding. The inhabitants guide themselves across these forests by means of the compass, which they can make for themselves, the magnet being pretty well known among them."*

Description of Pelym, by Munnich.

Tioomen.

The district of Tioomen, to the south-west of Tobolsk, is more open and less covered with forests than Turinsk; it exports grain, and even some apple-trees are found here. Tioomen, a flourishing town on the Tura, has several Tartar inhabitants, and handsome carpets are manufactured in it.† At some distance from it is found the tomb of the traveller Steller, who has made us acquainted with Kamtchatka.‡

Yalutorowsk.

The district of Yalutorowsk is east from the preceding. No where are richer meadows to be seen than here; they are cut down by the first who comes; and the greater part are not mowed at all, as there is a want of cattle to consume the fodder. Insects swarm amazingly. The district of Tara on the Irtysh, to the south-east of Tobolsk, comprehends a flat country covered with forests, and well stocked with game. Tara on the river side is a handsome town.

Of Koorgan.

The district of Koorgan is situated south from Yalutorowsk on the Tobol. The governor of Tobolsk, in describing it to M. Kotzebue, called it the Italy of Siberia.

Siberian Italy.

* Busching, t. II. part I. p. 491. French translation.

† Georgi, Russie, II. p. 1036, (in 4to.)

‡ Pallas, Voyages II. p. 506, (in 4to.)

The ground is covered with beautiful flowers. Flocks of horned cattle, and of horses, feed there without any keeper. Plenty of wood-cocks, wild ducks, and wood-pigeons are seen. The town of Koorgan, on the Tobol, resembles a collection of farm houses. Provisions are extremely low in price, but all articles of European manufacture are very high. Kotzebue describes in the following manner the amusements in which the young women of Koorgan indulge on the banks of the Tobol. "Along the rivers there are places where the young women come together to wash linen, and to bathe; these baths are converted by them into admirable gymnastic exercises; they cross and re-cross the Tobol, swimming gracefully and without effort, leaving themselves for a time to the force of the current, and lying on the water with their faces upward; they often pursue one another, or pelt one another with sand, duck, and upset one another, and plunge together; they remind a spectator of the Naiads of ancient fable; and so far do they carry their sport that one not used to see them would apprehend every moment he should see them go to the bottom. The whole is conducted with the utmost decency; the head alone appears out of water, and were it not for a slight glance of the form of the bosom, one might doubt of their sex. When about to finish their sport and go out of the water, they request the spectators to retire; and, should any one more curious or rude than the rest refuse, the women on the banks form a close circle round those who are coming out, and throw a piece of dress over each, so that every thing necessary to modesty in this particular is completed in an instant."

Koorganese girls.

To the east of the preceding is the district of Ischim, which comes in contact with the great steppe of Issim, or Ischim, in which the Kirguisians of the middle horde wander. These nomades were formerly in the practice of carrying off the Russians, and dragging them along tied to the tails of their horses. In order to put a stop to these incursions, a line of military posts was established, extending from the banks of the Tobol to those of the Irtysh,

District of Ischim.

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along the margin of a valley full of salt lakes.* The fortress of Petropaulofskaia is the residence of the staff of this line. The district of Omsk on the Irtysh, near the steppe of Barabin, presents nothing remarkable. Omsk, its chief place, contains a great many exiles.

District of Omsk.

GOVERNMENT OF TOMSK.

THE GOVERNMENT OF TOMSK comprehends the countries situated on the Upper Obi, and on the Yeniseï.

Province of Turukhansk.

The province of Tomsk presents at its northern extremity the vast district of Mangaseïsk, more commonly called Turukhansk, a series of forests, marshes, and deserts. The white foxes, white bears, and wolves, are larger here than in any other country of Siberia, and their hair is thicker and of better quality. Fish and aquatic birds abound. On the shores of the Frozen Sea, to the east of the Yeniseï, quantities of timber are thrown on shore.† The climate is more severe than on the Obi. The ice does not entirely disappear till the end of June. The elms, larches, willows, and birches, are only two months in leaf. The flowering of plants is more early. A species of flax grows here, with flowers of extraordinary size.‡ The town of Turukhansk, called also Mangaseïsk, contains a thousand people. The *simovié*, or cabins of the cossacks, extend 330 miles farther north: these hyperboreans are very much attached to their horrid country.§

Physical details.

District of Yeniseï.

To the south of Turukhansk, the district of Yeniseï extends along the river of the same name, and the Upper Tunguska or Angara. It produces corn, venison, and winged game in plenty, but has no fruit trees. The town of Yeniseï, situated on the river, has a great trade. It is four miles in circumference. Its inhabitants have the character of being cunning and deceitful dealers, and addicted to drunkenness and debauchery.

Of Narym.

The districts of Narym, of Tchoulym, of Tomsk, and of Kaïnsk, extend to the south-west of the two preceding.

* Pallas, Voyage, III. p. 51. (4to.)

† Gmelin, Voyage in Sibérie, III. p. 126.

‡ Souyef, dans les Voyages de Pallas, IV. p. 458, (in 4to.)

§ Georgi, Russie, II. p. 1057.

Tchoulym and Tomsk.

Narym, the most northerly, is a hunting country, possessing very little bestial, and no agriculture. There are some flocks in that of Tchoulym. In the district of Tomsk, which lies on both sides of the Obi, the soil is very productive in all sorts of grain, and many horses and cattle are reared in it. The rivers are stocked with a great variety of fish. In this country, Mr. Flaxmann discovered coal.

City of Tomsk.

Tomsk on the Tom, a river which falls into the Obi on the east, ranks the third town of Siberia. Its population amounts to 11,000, and is daily increasing. Its central position will, perhaps, render it one day the capital of Siberia. Tomsk is the abode or resort of a very great number of Russian, Tartar, Bukharian and Kalmuk merchants. The greater part of the inhabitants belong to a sect called the Roskolniki, who are austere and ridiculous in their maxims, but are said to give themselves up in secret to debauchery and drunkenness, though such accounts of despised sectaries are seldom to be trusted.

Kainsk.

The district of Kaïnsk, which comprehends a part of the steppe of Barabin, is remarked for a great quantity of ermines.

Kolywan.

The province of Kolywan was, under Katherine II., a separate government. It is the southern part of western Siberia. The country between the Obi and the Tom is blessed with a very fertile soil; but when visited by Pallas it was covered with birchwood, and very thinly inhabited.* Here the town of Kolywan has been built and rebuilt, sometimes in one place, sometimes in another. The modern Kolywan is a middling town on the Obi.

District of Semipalatnoï.

The district of Semipalatnoï, being the southern extremity of western Siberia, merits our particular attention in regard to its natural geography. The plain between the Obi and the Irtysh is of a saline nature. The banks of the Irtysh consist of hills of very deep moving sand. The cattle here are extremely liable to be cut off in multitudes by

* Pallas's Travels, III. p. 388.

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disease. In the southern part, which is more mountainous, the water in several places is bad, and gives rise to intermittent fevers.* This country is exposed to storms and hurricanes. The heights are generally arid, and none but the low grounds are susceptible of cultivation.

Climate.

Vegetation.

The vegetation of wild plants, trees, and shrubs becomes more beautiful in proportion as we ascend the mountains. The false acacia, the balsam poplar, the wild cherry, the white hazel, the white and red elder, the red gooseberry, the privet, and all kinds of wild roses, cover the banks of the Ooba. Large yellow strawberries please both the taste and the eye. Hyssop, water-mint, hops, and wild hemlocks, adorn the banks of the Shoolba. The *Clematites orientalis* attaches itself to the trees in festoons. Limpid springs flow under the shade of the Tartarian honeysuckle, which here forms pretty large trees. In the Altai mountains, plants more peculiar to Alpine temperatures, such as the *Gentiana veris*, the alpine saintfoin, the *Dryas pentapetala*, the *Polygala Sibirica*, the beautiful *Spiræa altaica*, the *Valeriana Sibirica*, the everlasting flower called *Gnaphalium silvestre*, display their elegant blossom in the immediate vicinity of the snow.†

Schlangenberg.

The mine and town of Schlangenberg, called by the Russians Zmeiewskaia-Gora, is the most remarkable place in this district. The mountain receives its name from the great number of serpents found in it. The Tchoodes had made extensive workings here long before the Russians.

District of Biisk.

In the environs of Barnaool, in the district of Biisk, the air is milder, and the summer warmer than in places more to the south, which are nearer the mountains. All kinds of pot herbs, and even artichokes, grow. Barnaool is a mining town of nearly a thousand houses, and is famed for

* Pallas's Travels, III. p. 200.

† Pallas, III. p. 190, 201, 263, &c. Patrin, Voyage dans les monts Altai.

its forges. In its neighbourhood are lime-kilns, brick-works, and glass manufactures.

Of Kutznesk.

The district of Kutznesk, with a town of the same name, is situated near the sources of the Tom, and extends to the Yeniseï. It contains many very fertile and very agreeable places.

District of Abakansk.

The district of Abakansk, to the east of the former, is on the Upper Yeniseï. Though full of mountains, it contains some excellent pastures, and some grounds which are fertile in grain. Near Abakansk the temperature is sufficiently genial for the culture of water melons. This district, like the whole of southern Siberia, contains a great many tumuli or sepulchral mounds: the Tartars call them the tombs of the Cathayans, or Li-Kateï; and the ornaments of gold, and other metals found in them, shew the flourishing state of the ancient nation which raised them. There are likewise on the rivers Abakan and Tchoolym human statues from seven to nine feet high, and covered over with hieroglyphics.*

Ancient monuments.

District of Krasnoiarsk.

As we go down the Yeniseï we arrive at the district of Krasnoiarsk, where the soil is so fertile that it requires very slight labour, and may be cropped for five or six years, or even more, in succession, without manure. In this quarter grain and all sorts of provisions are very cheap, and the people indulge in good living and idleness. The sepulchral tumuli in the mountains of Krasnoiarsk contain arms, ornaments, cups and coins of gold, silver, copper, and iron; monuments of the active industry of the ancient inhabitants of Siberia.† Two walls of rocks, one on the banks of the Koksa, and the other on those of the Birius, present inscriptions in unknown characters; they are called Pisanoi-Kamen, or "the rocks with the writing." There is a similar rock on the banks of the Tom, under Kutznesk, on which figures of animals are sculptured.

Rocks with inscriptions.

* Georgi, Russie, II. p. 1029. Pallas, Voyage, &c. Messerschmidt, &c.

† Georgi, ibid.

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We now proceed to EASTERN SIBERIA, included in the vast GOVERNMENT OF IRKOOTSK, the four provinces of which, viz. Irkootsk, Nertchinsk, Yakootsk, and Okhotsk, supply us with good geographical subdivisions.

GOVERNMENT AND PROVINCE OF IRKOOTSK.

City of Irkootsk.

Irkootsk, the capital of all the government, is likewise capital of the province which bears its name. This city, which is the seat of the governor and of the archbishop, is situated on the banks of the Angara, in a beautiful plain, forty miles from the lake of Baïkal. It is one of the largest and finest towns in Siberia. It is fortified, and contains a population of 11,200 inhabitants, the greater part of whom are thriving traders. Their household furniture generally comes from China, the women dress in Chinese stuffs, and the ordinary beverage is tea. Diseases arising from vice are very general. A Japanese school of navigation is established in this city, in which native Japanese masters teach the language of their country, and persons from the Russian admiralty give instructions in the art of navigation.

Physical details.

The environs of Irkootsk are agreeable, the soil is fertile, and agriculture in a flourishing state. In proportion as we approach the lake of Baïkal the country becomes more and more mountainous. Game is abundant in the neighbourhood. There are elks, stags, wild boars, muir-fowl, woodcocks and partridges. This country experiences frequent earthquakes.

District of Kirensk.

Kirensk on the Lena has also a fertile territory, producing plants of extraordinary size. The small sturgeons, and other fish which are taken in the neighbouring rivers, are the most delicate in all Siberia. The inhabitants of this country are disfigured by goitures of uncommon size; these are frequently seen even on the cows and oxen of the country.

Lower Udinsk.

The district of lower Udinsk, which extends east from that of Irkootsk, is almost entirely covered with dark and marshy forests, where the soil produces nothing but moss and marsh plants, in a great measure similar to those of

Russia and the north of Europe. The climate is excessively cold.

Town of Kiakta.

Kiakta, a town built on the frontier of Mongolia, in the district of Upper Udinsk, has become a place of note from the trade between Russia and China. It is commanded by Mount Boorgultei, (the Mountain of Eagles) which the Chinese reserved to themselves in the last demarcation treaty, on the pretext that its summit contained the tombs of their ancestors. Kiakta labours under a great want of good water. The environs consist of sand and rocks, a soil ill fitted for the culture of vegetables. The chief inhabitants are Russian merchants, or agents of the chief commercial houses of the empire. Their mode of life is polished and social. The merchants think that the best hospitality they can shew to a stranger is to press him to drink all the different kinds of tea in succession. Their furniture, and part of their clothing, are of Chinese manufacture.

Inhabitants.

Town of Selinginsk.

Selinginsk, another town of the district of Upper Udinsk, is situated in the neighbourhood of high sandy mountains, the successive crumblings of which begin to cover all its streets. The inhabitants are very little engaged in trade; their constitution and physiognomy present a strong mixture of the Mongolian. The Russians who are established here prefer, in their marriages, wives from the Booriaits or Mongols. These alliances give origin to a breed called Karimki. The manners of the common people are very similar to those of the Booriaites. The inhabitants in general even prefer speaking the Mongol language. The climate of Selinginsk is tolerably temperate; on all high grounds with a southern exposure snow disappears in the month of March, and the flocks go to pasture about the twentieth day of the same month. Bushes of the wild pear, the *Ribes diacantha* and the dwarf elm, are not found any where in great number. The mountains are covered with the *Robinia pygmaea*.*

Inhabitants.

* Pallas, IV. p. 142, 224, and 369, 4to.

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Physical remarks.

This province has an astonishing variety of soil and climate; in one place narrow, gloomy, and cold valleys; in another, hot sandy plains, and a little way off, a surface of neutral salts. At Selinginsk water melons thrive very well; while on the banks of the Uda corn seldom ripens. In general this country is ill adapted to agriculture, even with the utmost care.*

Province of Nertchinsk, or Russian Daooria.

The province of Nertchinsk, which comprehends Russian Daooria, is covered with mountains. The plains met with here are, properly speaking, wide valleys. The mountains present on every hand nothing but perpendicular and projecting rocks, which seem suspended in the air. For this reason no country is richer in picturesque views and situations. The air may be compared to that of the Alps, the cold being rather keen even in summer. The most common wood consists of pines, larches, black and white firs, Siberian cedars, and black birch, which occurs in no other part of Siberia. The summits where the snow lies constantly contain some clumps of the pine of Libanus, dwarf birch, and a particular species of junipers and willows. The hazel and the oak do not make their appearance till we pass the river Argoon on the Chinese territory. For rare plants and minerals this province surpasses all those of Siberia. It has a brilliant alpine vegetation. To mention one example; we see entire mountains near the banks of the Onon, whose surface on one side is overspread with a lilac hue produced by the buds of the wild apricot, while the other seems carpeted with the deep purple of the rhododendrons with which it is covered.†

Physical details.

City of Nertchinsk.

Nertchinsk, a frontier town, with a fort on the Chinese side, is, next to Kamtchatka, the place of banishment most dreaded of any in Russia. The exiles sent hither are employed in the mines. The number in the place at a time is generally 1000, sometimes 1800, rarely 2000. Confounded in one single class, they are dressed and fed

Exiles.

* Pallas, IV. 384, &c.

† Idem, IV. 313, &c. 410.

like the soldiers. Desertion is extremely difficult; they are not however oppressed with too heavy work. The Chinese always deliver up those who have made their escape, and insist on the infliction of an additional chastisement on them for having polluted their territory.

Province of Yakootsk.

The province of Yakootsk comprehends the greater part of the basin of the Lena. Some southern stripes of land on the west side of the river enjoy a tolerable climate. But from this river to the promontory of Tchalagiuskoi the country has nothing but mountains or morasses, and is excessively cold. Barley ripens in six or seven weeks, but the harvest is uncertain. The only sure means of subsistence are found in hunting. In this wintry region ice is employed as a protection from the cold in the following curious manner: The window panes are generally laminæ of transparent mica, called Muscovy glass; exterior to these, plates of transparent ice are set up, and cemented by pouring on them a little water, which immediately freezes.* The short summer heats induce the Tongooses to go naked like the Americans, wearing only a small piece of leather round the middle. Several of them live on the roots of the orange-lily, which are very common, and which they convert into meal and bread. The Tongoos fishermen throw their lines into the rivers when scarcely thawed, and accompany their fishing with merry songs and nimble dances.

Singular application of ice.

Tongooses.

Towns and districts.

Yakootsk, situated on the west bank of the Lena, is the capital of the province. This town, consisting of about 600 indifferent houses, carries on a great trade in sables. In the vicinity of Olekminsk, the chief place of a district of the same name, some fields of barley are cultivated. This town consists of about twenty houses, with a church and fort. The inhabitants are descended from Russians who were sent hither when the fort was established for collecting the tribute of furs; but they have almost forgotten their native language and manners for those of their

* Gmelin, Voyage de Siberie. Georgi, Russie, II. p. 1102.

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rude neighbours and dependents. The two districts of Olensk on the Olenek, and of Shigansk on the Lena, are vast deserts where hordes of Yakootes and Tongooses lead a wandering life. Olensk is the most northern place in the world that bears the name of a town. At Kumah-Surka, the Lena, proceeding from the mountains, offers one of the most picturesque and majestic views that can be imagined.* The district of Sachiwersk is inhabited by Yookagirs. The tribute in these countries is levied by half-noble Cossaks, (or *Dworianin*) who are settled at Yakootsk, and receive eight rubles, (about L.1 5s.) of annual pay. These are the princes, and sometimes the dreaded tyrants of this Arctic world.

Islands of the Frozen Sea.

The Frozen Sea on this part of the Siberian coast, seems to be full of islands. Those which are found opposite to the mouths of the Lena and the Yana, are, like the adjoining coast, great turf hills on a base of eternal ice. Some of them contain half frozen lakes. These solitudes are the habitations of the bear and the reindeer. Islands more worthy of notice have been found to the north of Cape Sviaitoi. They had been visited in 1711 and 1724, but were afterwards forgotten, till they were re-discovered by the Russian merchant Liaikhoff, in 1774. He first surveyed two flat islands, the southernmost of which contains a lake. The sand and soft earth surrounding this lake, is falling to pieces, lays open collections of bones, and entire skeletons of buffaloes, rhinoceroses, and elephants. The ivory found here is as white and fresh as that which is brought from Africa. He found at a distance of seventy miles from the second island, an extensive coast, which the surveyor Chwoïnof was sent to examine in the following year, and which has been recently examined by M. Hedenstrom. This land, which has been named New Siberia, presented a pretty high coast, where petrified wood was

New Siberia.

* Remarkable account of the islands of Liaikhof, &c. in Pallas's New Memoirs of the North, VII. p. 128—142, (in German,) in the Petersburgh Gazette of 1810.

found in immense regular strata between the sand and the clay. The bones of elephants are found in it in great abundance. There is a considerable river, which indicates that the land is not of very limited extent. It contains some plants; and traces of human beings were supposed to be perceived.* This New Siberia is perhaps only an extremity of American or west Greenland, which would have been called a northern extremity had it been short of the pole; but if it has crossed it, its two opposite extremities must both be called southern; and those which look east and west must be viewed as the shores of gulphs or bays formed by the undulating line of the land.

Province of Okhotsk.

The most westerly parts of Siberia are comprehended in the province of Okhotsk, a hilly country, covered with marshy woods. Scarcely any plant subservient to human subsistence grows here, and provisions are brought to it from Yakootsk. Even the potatoe speedily degenerates.† The only town is Okhotsk, a sea port, from which the Russians fit out for Kamtchatka and America. Merchant vessels are built in this quarter.

Country of the Tchooktches.

The country of the Tchooktches, which forms the extremity of Asia on the north-east, supports among its rocks innumerable flocks of rein-deer. The inhabitants live partly in the hollows of the rocks; they also build cots of the bones of whales.‡ The "Bear Islands," which skirt the north coast of the country of the Tchooktches, have more vegetation than those of Liaikhoff.§ In Behring's Straits are the two islands Imoglim and Igeliin, probably the same as the "Clarke's Islands" of the English. They are inhabited by the Achootllach colony, a set of intrepid fishermen, who cook their provisions over lamps formed in little

* Adams, Voyage, &c. Ephem. Geogr. XXV. 260.

† Melanges sur Okhotsk, dans Pallas, Nouveau Memoires du Nord, IV. 146—162.

‡ Extract of the Journal of Iwan Kowalew, corporal of Cossacks, a native of Tchootch, in the preceding work, IV. 105—111.

§ Journal of Leontiew, Andreiew, and Lissow's Expedition to the Bear Islands, in Pallas, Nouv. Mem. I. p. II. p. 231—237.

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cavities in the rocks, in which oil is burned with rush matches.

PENINSULA OF KAMTCHATKA.

The large peninsula of KAMTCHATKA forms a district of the province of Okhotsk. This country is divided longitudinally by a chain of mountains, and its two sides are watered by an infinity of streams, generally neither large nor navigable. The most considerable of them are the Kamtchatka, the Awatsha, and the Bolshaia-Rieka. The winters of this country are of ten month's duration. It begins to freeze by the month of July, and the frosts often continue till May. But the cold is never very intense, the sea fogs keeping up a humid and comparatively mild state of the atmosphere. The winds, and in consequence of this the climate, are extremely inconstant, and the transition from summer to winter is often instantaneous. Several of the rivers never freeze. Agriculture has not succeeded in this peninsula even in its southern part. Barley and oats give at most a return of two or threefold, and that only in select spots. The moisture prevents the ears from ripening. At a certain distance from the sea they might probably succeed.* Corn is extremely dear, being brought all the way from Irkootsk. But the rearing of cattle might become an important object, as the pastures are excellent, and the grass tall and waving, like that of the savannahs of Louisiana.

Climate.

Agricultural experiments.

Foxes, sables, hares, ermines, bears, and rein-deers, range this country in droves. The coasts are always surrounded by a crowd of cetaceous and amphibious animals, as whales, sea-bears, manatis, otters or sea-beavers. Dabs, soles, lampreys, eels, and pikes, swarm unmolested in the rivers, being only eaten in times of scarcity. But the salmon, which is excellent, is regularly fished. When this fish ascends the rivers from the sea, it is in such numbers as to obstruct in some measure their current. The dogs and

Riches of the animal kingdom.

* Krusenstern's Voyage round the world, II. chap. 8. Compare with Pallas, Nouv. Mém. du Nord; Steller and others.

bears, by Steller's account, devour at their leisure as many as they please. The herring, which go up into the lakes to spawn, abound in them to such a degree, that they may almost be taken up in buckets. The birds are equally remarkable for their great number and the multiplicity of species. The sea birds are innumerable. Among the land birds may be mentioned swans, seven species of geese, and eleven of ducks. Eagles are used as food. Fir, larch, and poplar, are used for building houses and vessels. The birches, which abound, are employed for making sledges. The green bark of this tree is cut in small pieces, and eaten with caviare, and the sap of the same tree furnishes an agreeable drink. The willow and the alder are almost the only species used as firewood. The willow bark is eaten by the inhabitants, and that of the alder is employed for staining leather. The root of the *lilium Kamtchatcense* is often used for bread. Nettles are used instead of flax and hemp. There are several medicinal plants. Of the *fuci* which abound in the adjoining sea, the *fucus dulcis*, or *palmatus*, the *esculentus*, and *saccharinus*,* (so called from an efflorescence which it gives out of soft and glutinous matter, compared to sugar from its appearance,) are eaten by the people like cabbage.

Vegetables.

Marine plants.

Nishni-Kamtchatsk, a capital on the Kamtchatska river; Bolscheretzkoi and Petropaulowsk, in Awatscha Bay, are mere villages or rather hamlets.

Establishments.

The Aleutian islands belong too evidently to America to be described along with Asia. But Behring's Island and Copper Island are entitled to follow our account of Kamtchatka, of which they appear to be an easterly extension. Behring's Island, which is the nearest to it, derives its name from the celebrated Danish navigator, whose active life was terminated on this desert shore. It is uninhabited. The land consists of granite. The cold on the sea shore is not rigorous, and strong ice is never seen. But

Behring's Island.

* See Mr. Turner's splendid work on the fuci, in which these plants are accurately and elegantly delineated.

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the tops of the hills in the interior, estimated by Steller to be 6400 feet in height, are perpetually covered with snow.* The island is destitute of wood, and surrounded with reefs.

Copper Island.

Mednoi-Ostrow, or Copper Island, takes its name from the circumstance of some native copper having been found on its western shore. It is in kidney-shaped pieces contained in the gravel of which the beach is formed, and situated in a sort of veins.† In 1762, the navigator Melenski obtained from it three or four hundred pounds weight. The vein is now exhausted. Both of these islands are inhabited by a prodigious number of *isatis*, or polar foxes. Sea otters, sea cows, and whales collect here in troops.

General considerations on Siberia.

Siberia, the general and particular description of which we now bring to a conclusion, presents a vast field to the projects of the politician, to the speculations of the merchant, and the reflections of the philosopher. Russia derives more than one great advantage from the possession of this third part of Asia. Protection to her European provinces from any attack on this side; millions of clear profit from the mines; a commercial communication with China and with America: such are the fruits which Russia derives from this conquest of a single Cossack, Yermak Timofeiew, the Cortez of the hyperborean world. The Siberian trade is enjoyed as a monopoly by the Russian merchants. The great rivers of this country, the Obi, the Yenisei, and the Lena, and their tributaries, approach and retire from one another so conveniently, that goods may be carried almost entirely by water from Kiakta to Russia in Europe. This passage occupies three years, that is, three short summers; the land route takes one entire year. In 1790, the carriage and freight from Kiakta to Petersburgh are six roubles or 19 shillings for every pood, (of 40 lbs.) and by water, only four (or twelve shillings and eight-pence.)

* Steller's account of Behring's Island, in Pallas's Nouv. Mém. II. p. 255—301.

† Jakowlew, director of the mines, quoted by Georgi, Russie, II. p. 1150. Steller's account of Copper Island, in the Nouv. Mém. II. p. 302—307.

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Trade of Siberia.

Tobolsk is the chief emporium of the goods which come from Europe, and of those which come from Siberia and China, the greater part of which is brought into Russia on sledges in the winter. The caravans of the Kalmuks, which arrive at Tobolsk during the winter, bring thither provisions and sometimes gold and silver, and when they leave it, take home different articles of copper and iron. The Bukharians, who also come at the same season, bring friezed lamb-skins and cotton stuffs from their own country, together with Indian silks, and sometimes precious stones. Tobolsk is the emporium of the furs destined for the use of royalty.

The other important places for the fur trade are Tomsk, especially for such as are sold to the Kalmuks and the Mongols; Krasnoiarsk, Yeniseisk, Tuzukhansk, and in eastern Siberia, Yakootsk; the three last principally for the purchasing market.

Irkootsk is the first town of Siberia for activity and extent of trade. Its advantageous position lays open to it three commercial roads; that of Kiatka, that of eastern Siberia and Kamtchatka and that of western Siberia and Russia. In the other towns the trade is that of simple transmission, here it is one of active commercial transactions. The traffic with China is in a great measure in the hands of the merchants of Irkootsk, the greater part of whom have warehouses and agents at Kiakta. It is likewise at Irkootsk that the greater part of sea voyages to the islands of the eastern ocean and of the coast of America are undertaken by the merchants, who form partnerships for that purpose. The Americo-Russian trade will probably at some future time bring the cabinet of Petersburgh into contact with English Canada, and the American states. This trade becomes henceforth necessary for Russia, who without America could not furnish a sufficient quantity of furs for the Kiakta market, where she buys teas, nankeens, and silks, now articles of necessity with the inhabitants of Siberia. All the fair sex, and even the wives of the Cossacks, use tea, and dress themselves with the manufactures of China. The Chinese merchant himself

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begins to feel a demand for more than the ermines and fine furs, he wants the cloths, and brocades, and some other productions of European industry. This trade is partly conducted by barter and partly by money. The balance against Russia has been more than four millions of livres for these last years, a disadvantage merely nominal: for it is certainly better to purchase tea and nankeens at first hand, and to pay the sledgemen and boatmen of Siberia for the transport, than to procure these goods from the maritime countries of Europe. If the balance of trade were in itself a solid principle of political economy, Russia might produce within her own territory, a great part of the objects of exchange to re-establish this balance. But we may ask one question, with a reference to the great disputed question now alluded to, What object can Russia or any other political community have in procuring for herself an influx and discouraging an efflux of the precious metals, if she does not mean to hoard them in a corner, without bringing them to use till some great national emergency calls for exertion, which is to be made by disgorging the store either among her own subjects in order to pay an increased army, or among allies and mercenaries, whose co-operation she might wish to procure? And in that case, would not the sudden production of the treasure prodigiously reduce its value? We do not mean here to discuss these questions, which belong to one of the most difficult and profound as well as most important departments of science, and are agitated in treatises devoted to the subject; but merely to intimate, *in transitu*, the danger of adopting precipitate conclusions.

Balance of trade.

SYNOPTIC VIEW

Of the Provinces and Nations of Siberia.

Divisions.	Riches and Cultivation, in the order of their relative proportions.	Inhabitants, in the order of their relative proportions.	Towns, and their Population.
I. WESTERN SIBERIA.			
(GOVERNMENT OF PERM.)			
Province of Ekaterinburg.			
1. District of Ekaterinburg.	Mines. Forests. Some kinds of corn	Russians. Germans. Permiaks	Ekaterinburg, 6000 inhabitts.
2. — of Dalmatow . . .	Forests. Agriculture. Pastures.	Ditto	Kamenskoï-Ostrog, 1800.
3. — of Shradinsk . . .	Agriculture	Ditto	Isetskoï-Ostrog, 2600.
4. — of Kamyshlowa . . .	Ditto	Ditto	Kamyshlowa, 1100.
5. — of Alepoewsk . . .	Mines. Pastures	Ditto	Nishneï-Newiansk, 6 or 7000.
6. — of Irbit	Agriculture. Pasture. Orchards	Russians. Permiaks . . .	Irbit, 2400. (A Fair.)
7. — of Werchoturia . . .	Little cultivation. Forests. Mines	Russians. Wogools . . .	Werchoturia, 3000.
GOVERNMENT OF ORENBURG.			
District of Troïtzk . . .	Pastures. Forests . . .	Russians. Bashkires . .	Troïtzk, 1500.
(GOVERNMENT OF TOBOLSK.)			
(A single Province.)			
1. District of Omsk . . .	Barley, millet, rye, &c. Hemp	Barabintzes. Russians . .	Omskaia, 2000.
2. — of Issim	Pasture. Corn. Salt Lakes .	Russians. Cossacks. Tartars	Issim, 1000.
3. — of Koorgan	Pasture. Corn. Wood. Fruits.	Russians. Cossacks. . . .	Koorgan, from 1 to 2000.

Table Continued.

Divisions.	Riches and Cultivation, in the order of their relative proportions.	Inhabitants, in the order of their relative proportions.	Towns, and their Population.
4. District of Tara . . .	Barley, rye, buck-wheat, to the west of the Irtysh. Pasture to the east. . . .	Russians on the west of the Irtysh. Tartars. The same and Barabintzes on the east.	Tara, 2140.
5. — of Ialutorowsk. . .	Rye, barley, and all kinds of corn. Pasture	Russians	Ialutorowsk, 2070.
6. — of Tioomen . . .	Rye, (uncertain) barley, oats, few pease. No fruits . .	Russians. Tartars . . .	Tioomen or Iepankha, 7or 8000.
7. — of Turinsk	Rye, barley, oats, in the plain and the south	Russians. Tartars. Wogools	Turinsk, 4000.
8. — of Tobolsk	Rye, barley, and oats, in the southern parts	Russians. Tartars . . .	Tobolsk, 12,260 (17,000.)
9. — of Soorgont . . .	No corn. No European cattle.	Ostiaks of the Obi. Russians	Soorgont, 1500.
10. — of Berezoff . . .	Rein-deer, bears, sables. No cattle	Ostiaks. Samoides. Russians. Wogools	Berezoff, 1509.
(Government of Tomsk.) 1. *Province of Tomsk.*			
1. District of Turukhansk	No corn. No pastures. Rein-deer, Siberian dogs, &c. .	Ostiaks of the Yenisei. Tongooses. Samoides. Russians. Cossacks. Youkagirs . .	Turukhansk, 1,000.
2. — of Yeniseïsk . . .	Scarcely any culture . . .	Tongooses. Russians . . .	Yeniseïsk, 6000.
3. — of Narym	Scarcely any corn. Few cattle	Ostiaks of Narym, or Ostiak-Samoides, Russians . .	Narym, 1580.
4. — of Tchoulym . . .	Rye, barley, (uncertain) .	Russians. Tartars . . .	Tchoulym or Atchinsk, 5 or 600.
5. — of Tomsk	Rye, barley, oats, &c. . .	Russians. Tartars. Ostiak-Samoides. Katchinzes . .	Tomsk, 11,000.
6. — of Kaïnsk	Pasture. Fisheries. Corn .	Barabintzes. Russians . .	Kainsk, 3000.

2. Province of Kolywan.			
7. District of Krasnoiarsk .	Pastures. Rye, wheat, barley, &c.	Russians. Teleontes . . .	Krasnoiarsk, 3500.
8. — of Abakansk . . .	Pasture. Little corn . . .	Russians. Teleontes. Saganiens. Kiragasses. Soyotes. Koïbales. Biriusses, &c. . . .	Abakansk, 4 or 500.
9. — of Kutnesk . . .	Pasture. Corn. Mines . .	Russians. Tartars. Abinzes, &c.	Kutnesk, 3000.
10. — of Kolywan . . .	Corn of different species. Mines.	Russians. Tartars, &c. . .	Kolywan, 2 or 3000.
11. — of Biisk	Mines in the south. Grain. Pasture	Russians. Tartars	Barnaoul, 6000.
12. — of Semipalatnoï . .	Mines. Pastures. Salt lakes. Fisheries	Russians. Barabintzes . .	Smeogorsk or Schlangenberg, 1550.
II. EASTERN SIBERIA. (Government of Irkutsk.) *Province of Irkutsk.*			
1. District of Irkutsk . .	Rye, wheat, oats. (Exportation)	Russians. Buriaites. Tungoosses.	Irkutsk, 11,250.
2. — of Upper Udinsk .	Rye, wheat, oats, millet, buckwheat. Hemp (in the valleys)	Russians. Mongols. Buriaites. Karinski or Metis . . .	Selenginsk, 2600.
3. — of Lower Udinsk. .	Rye, wheat, oats	Russians. Buriaites. Soyotes.	Nishnei. Udinsk, (Lower Udinsk,) 1500.
4. — of Kirensk	Rye, spring wheat, barley. Soil excellent. Climate unfavourable	Russians. Tungooses . . .	Kirensk, 3 or 400.

Table continued.

Divisions.	Riches and Cultivation, in the order of their relative proportions.	Inhabitants, in the order of their relative proportions.	Towns, and their Population.
Province of Nertchinsk.			
5. District of Nertchinsk -	Mountains. A little rye, summer wheat, barley. Hemp.	Russians. Buriaites. Tungooses - - - - - - -	Nertchinsk, 2000.
6. — of Doroninsk - - -	Mountains. Tillage in the valleys - - - - - - -	Russians. Mongols, &c. - -	Doroninsk, from 2 to 300.
7. — of Bargusinsk - - -	Little cultivation. Forests. Salt and bitter lakes - - -	Russians. Buriaites of Chorinsk, (Chorinskii Batzkii.)	Bargusin, from 2 to 400.
8. — of Stretinsk - - -	Mines. Game. Fish - - -	Buriaites. Russians - - -	Nertchinskoï Sawod, about 950
Province of Yakoetsk.			
9. District of Yakootsk -	Game. Fish. Attempts to produce barley - - - - -	Russians. Rakootes - - -	Yakootsk, 4000.
10. — of Olekminsk - - -	A little barley. Rein-deer. Transparent mica - -	Yakootes. Russians - - -	Olekminsk, 300.
11. — of Olensk - - - -	Rein-deer, Fish. Game - -	Yakootes. Cossacks - - -	Olensk, 100 or 150.
12. — of Shigansk - - - -	Game. Fish. Fossil ivory, &c.	Youkaghires. Cossacks - -	Shigansk, id.
13. — of Sachiwersk - - -	Game. Fish - - - - - -	The same - - - - - -	Sachiwersk, id.
Province of Okhotsk.			
14. District of Okhotsk - -	No culture. The Potatoes does not thrive - - - - -	Tungooses. Russians - - -	Okhostk.
15. — of Ishiginsk - - -	Rein-deer. &c. Cresses. Dwarf potatoes - - - - - -	Koriaks. Cossacks - - - -	Ichiginsk, 500. (A Fair of the nomadic tribes.)
16. — of Aklansk - - - -	Rein-deer. Bears. Fish - -	Tchooktches. Koriaks. Cossacks.	Aklansk, 100 or 200.
17. — of Nichnei-Kamtchatsk.	No culture. Pasture. Bears. Rein-deer. Dogs - - -	Cossacks. Russians. Kamtchatdales - - - - - - - -	Petropaulofsk, 120 or 150.

TABLE OF DISTANCES

Of some of the Siberian Towns, (in English Miles,) from the official Measurements.

Petersburgh									
2076	*Tobolsk*								
3882	1805	*Irkutsk*							
3027	952	853	*Tomsk*						
- - -	- - -	1657	- - -	*Yakootsk*					
- - -	586	- - -	- - -	- - -	*Beresof*				
- - -	1981	- - -	- - -	- - -	(716)	*Turukhansk*			
- - -	- - -	2324	- - -	666	(1576)	860	*Olensk*		
6172	4096	2290	3142	633	- - -	- - -	- - -	*Okhotsk*	
7800	5722	3917	4103	2260	- - -	- - -	- - -	1626	*Nichnei Kamtchatsk.*

Table of Geographic Positions in Siberia.

Names of places.	Long. E. from Lond.			Lat. N.			Authorities.
	deg.	min.	sec.	deg.	min.	sec.	
Abakanskoi-Ostrog .	.	.	.	54	7	0	Messerschmid, Ephemerides Geogr. XVI.
Argoun river (at its issue from lake Dolaï)	.	.	.	49	17	0	Idem. Ibid.
Awatsha	158	46	45	52	51	45	Connaiss. des Temps.
Bernaeel	83	27	0	53	20	0	Petersburg Calendar, published by the Ac. of Sciences.
Berezoff	.	.	.	63	56	14	Idem.
Bolcheretzkoi-Ostrog	156	50	15	51	54	30	Connaiss. des Temps.
Cape of Kamtchatka .	162	0	15	55	55	0	La Perouse.
— of Olutorskoï .	169	15	15	59	48	0	Idem.
— of Tchukotchoi, north . . .	190	16	15	66	5	20	Petersburg Calendar.
— of Tchukotchoi, south	186	29	15	64	14	30	Idem.
— of St. Thaddeus	179	5	15	62	50	0	Connaiss. des Temps.
Ekaterinbourg . . .	60	40	15	56	50	38	Table of Observations annexed to the map of Russia in 12 sheets.
The same	60	50	15	56	50	15	Connaiss. des Temps.
Iakutsk	129	42	30	62	1	50	Idem.
The same	129	44	0	(Idem)			Petersburg Calendar.
Ieniseisk	91	58	45	58	27	17	The same.
Irkutsk	104	11	33	52	16	41	The same.
The same	104	33	45	52	18	15	Connaiss. des Temps.
Kiachta	.	.	.	50	20	0	Petersburg Calendar.
Kirenskoi-Ostrog . .	108	3	0	57	47	0	Connaiss. des Temps.
Kolywansk	.	.	.	51	19	23	Petersburg Calendar.
Kowyma (Lower) . .	163	18	15	68	18	0	Connaiss. des Temps.
Khrasnoiarsk . . .	102	57	46	56	1	2	Petersburg Calendar.
The same	.	.	.	56	9	30	Messerschmid Eph. Geogr.
Narym	.	.	.	58	54	0	Petersburg Calendar.
Nertchinsk	.	.	.	51	56	0	The same.
The same	.	.	.	51	57	0	Messerschmid Eph. Geogr.
Okhotsk	143	12	45	59	20	10	Petersburg Calendar.
The same	143	13	45	(Idem)			Connaiss. des Temps.
Olekminsk	119	34	45	60	22	0	Petersburg Calendar.
Omskaia fort . . .	.	.	.	54	58	8	The same.
Petropaulofskaia port	178	48	0	53	1	20	The same.
The same	178	49	0	53	10	0	Connaiss. des Temps.
Saianskoi-Ostrog . .	.	.	.	53	10	0	Messerschmid, Eph. Geogr.
Selenginsk	106	38	45	51	6	6	Petersburg Calendar.
The same	106	32	30	(Idem)			Ephem. Geogr. XVI.

Table Continued.

Names of places.	Long. E. from Lond.			Lat. N.			Authorities.
	deg.	min.	sec.	deg.	min.	sec.	
Semipalatsk . . .	.	.	.	50	29	45	Petersburg Calendar.
Smenogarskaia or Schlangenberg fort . .	82	9	45	51	9	25	Table of the map of Russia.
Sourgout	.	.	.	61	16	0	Petersburg Calendar.
Tobolsk	68	25	15	58	12	30	Connaiss. des Temps.
The same	68	5	58	58	11	43	Petersburg Calendar.
The same	68	5	59	58	11	48	Table of the map of Russia.
Tomsk	84	59	45	56	30	0	Connaiss. des Temps.
The same	85	9	51	56	29	39	Petersburg Calendar.
Udinsk lower, or Nichnei	98	61	46	54	55	22	The same.
Udskoi-Ostrog . . .	.	.	.	55	18	0	The same.
Werchoturia	.	.	.	58	50	15	The same.

Agricultural Table of some of the Provinces of Siberia.

Districts.	Corn, fields in acres.	Forests, &c.	Meadows.
Delmatow . .	279,730,380.	664,129,592.	
Schradinsk . .	330,035,275.	59,925,987.	60,134,342.
Kamyschlowa .	348,794,097.	286,708,600.	
Irbit	162,297,632.	57,857,547.	63,237,690.
Werchoturia .	206,246,132.	512,281,742.	121,355,467.
Turinsk . . .	28,675,000.	745,420,000.	
Tioomen . .	48,012,500.	430,050,000.	
Ialutorrw . .	129,015,000.	1,003,450,000.	
Issim	3,962,500.		
Tara	64,507,500.		
Ieniseiuk . .	2,867,500.		

Chronological Table of Discoveries made in Siberia.

1242. The Tartars enter Siberia under Scheiban, who founds the Khanat of Sibir or Tura.

1246. Carpini mentions the Samoides as now included in the conquests of the Mongols.

1558. Troganow trades in Siberia.

1563. Iwan Wasiliewitch introduces Siberia into the titles of the Russian Czars.

1580. Iermak Timofeyew, at the head of some Cossacks, invades the Khanat of Sibir, or western Siberia.

1584. The Russians leave Siberia.

1587. They build Tobolsk.

1598. The death of Kutshum-Khan puts an end to the resistance of the Tartars.

1604. The city of Tomsk built.

1618. Ieniseïsk and Kutznesk are built.

1621. Cyprian, metropolitan of Tobolsk, publishes a description of Siberia.

1636. Russian vessels sail down the Lena, and explore the shores of the Frozen Sea.

1639. Dimitreï Kopilow reaches the shores of the Eastern Ocean.

1646. Bomyshlan sailed round from the Kowyma to the Anadyr, doubling Cape Tchukotchi in Behring's Straits.

1648. Deschnew, another Cossack, made the same voyage.

1648–58. Irkutsk, Iakootsk, and Nertchinsk, are built.

1690. Kamtchatka known at Iakootsk.

1695. First Russian expedition to Kamtchatka.

1706. The Russians make the south point of Kamtchatka.

1711–24. The merchants of Iakootsk visit the islands and countries north of the mouths of the Lena and the Iana.

1720–26. Daniel Messerschmidt travels in Siberia as far north as Turukhansk, and as far east as Nertchinsk.

N. B. He was a native of Dantzick, and died in extreme misery at Petersburgh, in 1735. His numerous papers, preserved in the archives of the Academy, have been extracted by his successors.

1721. Baron Strahlenberg, (originally a Swedish captain, and author of a work on northern and eastern Asia,) travels to the Ieniseï.

1727. Vitus Behring, a Dane, coasted eastern Siberia, from the Pacific as high as 67° 18 N. Lat., doubling Cape Tchu-

kotchi, but without discovering the opposite coast of America.

N.B. This navigator was born at Horsens in Yutland, and died, in 1741, on the island which bears his name.

1733. Behring, Muller, Gmelin, and Louis de l'Ile de la Croyère, set out on a great expedition.

N.B. The last-mentioned person, a French geographer and astronomer, died, in 1741, on the coast of America.

1733–43. John George Gmelin, the botanist, explored Siberia as far east as Iakootsk and Kirensk, as far north as Turukhansk, and to Nertchinsk and Sayanskoi-Ostrog on the south.

N.B. This philosopher was born in 1709 at Tubingen in Suabia, and died there in 1775. He was author of the Flora Sibirica, and uncle to Samuel Gmelin, traveller in Persia.

—— At the same time Muller and Fischer travelled along with Gmelin, in the character of historians and antiquaries.

N.B. Muller, historiographer, counsellor of state, &c., was a Westphalian by birth, and died at Moscow in 1784. Fischer, a Livonian, member of the Academy of Petersburg, died in 1771.

1738. Lieutenant Owzin sailed from the Obi to the Yeniseï.

—— Lieutenant Laptiew travelled by land along the coast, from the Yeniseï to the Lena.

1739–40. This officer sailed from the Lena to the Kowyma.

1740. George William Steller, a naturalist, arrived in Kamtchatka, and remained there till the end of 1743.

N.B. He was a native of Franconia, and died in misery in 1745. Author of a description of Kamtchatka, (1744,) the manuscript of which was used by Kraschenninikow. His other manuscripts, viz. Syllabe Plantarum Tobolensium, Flora Kamtchatika, Ornithologia Sibirica, and Ichthyologia Sibirica, were preserved by the Academy of Petersburgh, and extracted by subsequent travellers.

1760. The Academy of Sciences sent a list of questions to all the governors, and other persons likely to collect local information.

—— Pleisner, a Courlander, commandant of Okhotsk, ascertained, by a variety of researches, that the country of the Tchukotches is a peninsula, separated from America by a strait containing two islands.

1764. Sind, lieutenant of a Russian vessel, examined Behring's Strait and the adjoining coast of America.—A merchant vessel sailed from the Kowyma to the Anadyr.

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1765. Eric Laxmann travelled over Siberia, to the north-west part of Kamtchatka.

N.B. He was a Finnish Swede, a clergyman, afterwards an academician, counsellor of mines, knight, &c. He died in 1796. It is matter of much regret that he committed so little to writing.

1768–74. Peter Simon Pallas, a native of Berlin, made his great tour; spent the years 1770-1773 in Siberia; went to Daooria. Souiew his companion went to Obdoria.

1771. Nicholas Rytschkow, a Russian captain, and Bardanes, an Illyrian *savant*, travelled over the steppe of Kirguis along with a Russian detachment.

1771–2. John Peter Falk, a learned botanist, travelled in Siberia. His papers were published, in 1785, by Georgi.

N.B. Falk was a Swede, and a pupil of Linnæus, of respectable attainments, but the victim of jealousy and intrigue. He destroyed himself by a pistol-shot, in 1774.

1772. Georgi, colleague to Falk, made a minute examination of the lake of Baikal, and the Daoorian and Uralian mountains, &c.

N.B. Georgi was a native of Swedish Pomerania, author of the best statistical account of Russia.

1775. Liaichow and Chwoinow visited a large country, (island or continent?) to the north of Cape Sviatoi.

1787. Billings, an Englishman, made an unsuccessful attempt to sail round from the river Kowyma, by Behring's Strait, to the Anadyr.

1791–93. Billings navigated the Kamtchatkan seas. The accounts of this ill-directed expedition have been collected by Sauer, a German, and Sarytschew, a Russian.

1790–95. Sievers, a botanist and apothecary, travelled into the southern mountains of Siberia.

N.B. Sievers, a German, was another victim. He killed himself by poison. Some of his plants have been published by Pallas.

1804. The expeditions of Krusenstern, Langsdorf, Tilesius, &c.

This Table has been extracted from Fischer's History of Siberia, Muller's Collection on the History of Russia, Georgi, and others.—It does not include the voyages to the Aleutian Islands, those to the Kurile Islands and to Iesso, nor those to Spitsbergen. These countries come into view in other parts of our work.

BOOK XXXIX.

CENTRAL ASIA.

Comprehending Little Bukharia, the Kalmuk country, and Mongolia.

We return from the northern extremities of Asia to the central zones, which are only known to geography by vague traditions and antiquated descriptions. The traditions often serve to thicken the darkness in which we wander. The old descriptions furnish very deceitful lights; for, since the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, in which these countries were freely travelled, we know not how many cities may have disappeared, how many nations have become extinct, how many cultivated fields may have been suffered to lie waste, nor how many deserts may have been clothed with the benefits of cultivation. An analysis of the accounts of Carpin, of Rubruquis, of Marco Palo, Pigoletti and Haithon, will figure in the general view which will be given of the history of the geographical research in the middle age; but it is only that for want of better materials, and with circumspection and reserve, that we shall adopt some of their descriptions on the present occasion.

Deficiency of information.

The central part of Asia, from which we separate Thibet, includes five geographical divisions: Mongolia, or Mongolistan, properly so called, on the north of China,

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Modern and Ancient Divisions.

and the south of Irkootsk; the Kalmuk country, which we may denominate Kalmookia, called also Songaria, on the west of Mongolia, and on the south of Kolywan; little Bukharia, or eastern Turkestan, to the east of great Bukharia, and the north of Cashmere and little Thibet: Tangoot, or the country of the Eleuthes of Koko-Nord, or the eastern Kalmuks; and, lastly, in the middle of these four countries, the desert of Cobi, with the Oases of Lop, of Hamel and others. A small part of Songaria seems to have been included in what the ancients called *Scythia beyond Imaus*. The direction of the rivers, and perhaps a sight of lake Palcati-Nor, gave rise to the supposition that the northern ocean was but a short way off; and the Mongolian name of Daba, which is the general term for a mountain, was applied to the pretended promontory of Tabis, considered as terminating on the north-east in the country of the Igoors. The *Serica* of the ancients seems to have included the western parts of Thibet, Serinagur, Cashmere, little Thibet, and perhaps a small part of little Bukharia.* That name, known to Ammianus Marcellinus

Promontory of Tabis

* The opinion here given on the Geography of the ancients, and which is stated and supported at some length in the author's history of geography, has been rendered less probable by various subsequent discoveries made by British officers on the actual physical geography of the mountainous parts of Asia, which lie immediately on the north of India. Accordingly, the opinion of M. Gosselin here acquiesced in is combated in a learned memoir by Mr. Hugh Murray, inserted in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, volume VIII. p. 171, in which the *Seres* are maintained to be identical with the Chinese. The arguments are partly founded on a confidence in the general correctness of Ptolemy, as confirmed by these discoveries, which, while they subvert the views recently entertained, restore, so far as they go, the geography of that author. The length of the journey of the caravans which went from western to eastern Asia, in the silk trade, and the localities referred to in the account of Ptolemy, induce the belief that the ancient *Serica* was nothing else than China. From *Bactriana*, where their route begins to be matter of controversy, they first ascended the Beloor, apparently by the valley of the Oxus laid down in Mr. Elphinstone's map; then descended into a plain abundant in pasture, but not arable, (Pamer plains) then ascended a valley, probably the valley of Ladâk, to the "stone tower," a great rendezvous for the caravans (though this singular appellation has never yet been explained, situated most probably on a lofty ridge lying north and south, and separat-

in the fourth century, disappeared in the fifth. Moses of Chorené mentions, indeed, a town called *Syrrhia*, which is *Sera* the metropolis, but he gives the country of which it was the capital the name of *Djenia*, or Djenistan.* He seems to comprehend under this name central Asia, and particularly little Bukharia. He places the country of *Sena*, or China, more to the east. Perhaps the term *Djenia* might have been given in consequence of some ancient conquest which the Chinese had obtained over these countries, or it might signify "the country of genii, or of gods," as that of *Serica* may denote in Sanscrit "the country of happiness." Whatever be the fact in this case, it appears that, six centuries later, these countries went under the general name of Cathaya, or properly Kithay.† It is uncertain whether this word was the proper name of northern China, or an appellation derived from a Tartar term signifying "Desert Mountains." At all events, Kathay made

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Kathaya, or Kithay.

ing Little from Great Thibet. This ridge is considered as the *Imaus versus ad Arcton*. From this point their journey to the country of the *Seres* occupied seven months, a period which, allowing for the slowness of their progress, as well as some exaggeration, was amply sufficient to bring them to the heart of China, but inconsistent with any hypothesis which makes *Serica* either Little Bukharia, the Two Thibets, the north of India, or a country made up of these, or of portions of them. The account given of the *Seres*, their manners, their prejudices, their produce, and their manufactures and trade, corresponds in every particular to the picture presented by China as now known, and as it is described to have invariably existed from time immemorial. Little Thibet, according to this view, was the *Scythia intra Imaum*, the country of the *Sacæ*; Great Thibet, the *Scythia extra Imaum*. These points will be more fully considered in the history of geography. Though not warranted to alter the author's text in cases in which a difference of opinion might be entertained, we think it necessary to allude, as in the present instance, to later discussions conducted under greater advantages. Corrections of geographical facts founded on actual discoveries are, however, every where introduced without scruple, and without the ceremony of a formal intimation. On the present question, we must refer the reader to the interesting memoir now mentioned, and also to Mr. Murray's more recent work, entitled, "A Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Asia, in three Vols. 8vo. Vol. I. p. 485, &c. In this work, however, the argument is interspersed with other materials, and appears less pointed and consecutive than in the memoir.—Tr.

* Mos-Chor. Histor. Armen.

† And. Muller, Disquisitio, Geogr. et Histor. de Cathaya (Berlin, 1670,) Compare with Hyde Syntagma Dissert. I. Itin. mund. p. 31.

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a conspicuous figure in geography from the thirteenth till the middle of the seventeenth century. It is certain that the name chiefly applied to the north part of China, which long formed a separate monarchy, but it probably extended at the same time over part of Mongolia and of Tangut. The meaning of the term *Khra-Kithay*, or tributary Cathay, must have varied with the fortunes of war.

Extension of the name of Tartary.

A name still more vague has long been applied in our maps, not only to the central zone, but also to all the northern and eastern part of Asia. This is TARTARY with its divisions. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, this name was given to the whole empire of the Mongols under Genghiz-Khan, and that of the Tartars under Tamerlane. During the dismemberment of this latter monarchy, a descendent of Genghiz-Khan, called Isan-Boga-Khan, founded a separate state in little Bukharia, of which Bishbalig, and afterwards Cashgar, were the capitals. About the same time, the four confederate tribes of Kalmuks, which call themselves *Derben-Oerdt*, or "the four brothers," and are called by the Europeans Eleuths, re-established their ancient independence, and elected a sovereign, on whom they conferred the title of *Contaish*, or *Khan-taidsha*. At this epoch, the power of the Mongols in China was extinguished; the descendants of Genghiz-Khan retired to Karakorum, a place which under Genghiz had been the capital of the whole of Asia, but was now merely the chief place of the horde of the Kalkas. Divided among themselves, the Mongols gradually became tributary to the Chinese, and afterwards to the Mantchoos, the new masters of China. Russia, after destroying the Tartar kingdoms of Astrakan, Kasan, and Siberia, subjugated some Mongolian tribes in the neighbourhood of Lake Baïkal. These different revolutions produced the famous distinction in geography between Muscovite or Russian Tartary, including Astrakan, Kasan, and Siberia; Chinese Tartary, consisting of the country of the Mongols and Mantchoos; and Independent Tartary, consisting of the states of Great and Little Bukharia; that of the Eleuth Kalmuks, the

Kirguis, and the Turcomans. This threefold division, now entirely rejected, had been throw into some confusion half a century ago. The Kalmuks, who in 1683 had conquered Little Bukharia, and had become formidable to China and to Russia, experienced, after fifty years of power and glory, all the miseries of civil war. The Chinese, employing against them the arms of the Mongols, subdued them, and still hold them in a state of vassalage. Chinese Tartary should, at the present day, extend over the whole central plateau of Asia; but it is more advisable to reject the term entirely.

Considerations on the plateau of central Asia.

We have already traced the mountain chains which support or circumscribe the central plateau of Asia; we have followed the courses of the rivers which water that icy region. If it is asked, what are the structure and composition of that chain? we are presented only with a long series of uncertainties and conjectures. Does this plateau maintain nearly an equal level; or is it more elevated at one or two central points? Is it interspersed with some groups of mountains which are of moderate elevation above their immediate bases, like the mountains of Algydim-Shalo in the Kirguis country? or may the permanence of the snow on the summits of the great Altaï and the great Bogdo be considered as a proof of a greater elevation in the interior of the Kalmuk country? Is the same elevation continued along the deserts by which that country is separated from Thibet? Are these deserts filled entirely with black sand, as has been hitherto asserted, or do they contain secondary mountains? Is the granitic nature of the Altaic, Sayanian, and Daoorian mountains, common to the great chains in the interior, if such chains exist? or do the latter consist solely of masses of hardened clay, mixed with gravel, like the mountains in the neighbourhood of the great wall, mentioned by Staunton? or, what certainly appears more probable, does this centre of the great continent of Asia contain immense seas of sand, and a chaotic mixture of all the elements of the globe. There seem to be no volcanoes in it in a state of

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activity; but may not this great extent of land afford some traces of ancient volcanic revolutions, like those observed by M. Patrin in Daooria? In fine, does this region, so near to India, contain, like Siberia, bones of the elephant and the rhinoceros?

These are important questions, and the list might be farther extended. It is curious to find that hitherto they remain unanswered. This great region, forming a sixth part of the old continent, has not been seen by any of our geologists, who display with so much confidence their theories of the earth.

Minerals. The mineralogy of these countries is equally unknown. The tin mines said to exist in the country strictly called that of the Mongols; the name of "Golden Mountains," (Altaï,) given to one great ridge; the tradition of the great antiquity of the art of mining among the Mongols who live near to the rich mines of Russian Daooria; the instruments and vessels of gold found in the ancient tumuli; and, finally, the report that the rivers of Little Bukharia furnish a gold dust, which forms an article in the commerce of Kiakta: these constitute the feeble proofs which we possess of the mineral treasures of this great region.

Climate. All accounts agree in representing the cold of central Asia as extremely rigorous; and its elevation and latitude would lead us to the same conclusion. La Perouse found the coasts of the Mantchoo country, under the parallel of 40°, covered with snow in August. The ambassadors of Sharok saw, in the Kalmuk country, the ground frozen two inches thick at the summer solstice.* Yet some more temperate countries are found in the interior.

Vegetation. The vegetation of the centre of Asia, including even that of Thibet, is almost entirely unknown to us; these vast countries never having been explored by any able naturalist. The elevation of their soil and the rigour of their winters might produce a presumption that they con-

* Forster's Northern Discoveries, I. 254.

tain no plant belonging to the more temperate parts of Asia. Yet the cotton plant and the vine have found their way hither. From the vague accounts of ancient travellers, and the little that we know of the vegetables which grow on the maritime coasts of Tartary, it would appear that the plants are partly the same that are found in the north of Germany, mixed with several of the Siberian species. BOOK XXXIX.

The vast extent of central Asia undoubtedly contains new species, and perhaps a flora altogether peculiar, but we do not yet know of any of its peculiar and indigenous plants, except the singular fungus called *Polypodium barometz*, or the Tartarian lamb, (which is figured and described in Darwin's Botanic Garden,) and the different species of rhubarb. These last grow on the mountains; the fungus, now mentioned, in the steppes.

The animals which roam at large in the deserts become known by making their appearance in occasional visits which they pay to Siberia and to China. All the species which are useful to man are found here in a state of nature. The wild horse is called by the Kalmuks* *takia*, and by the Mantchoos *tahi*.† The *koolan*, or wild ass, inhabits the steppes and open plains; and does not exceed the latitude of 48°‡ His flesh is used as food. A third solipedous quadruped, which holds an intermediate place between the ass and the horse, the *dijggetaï* or *hemionus*, collects in troops on the banks of the Onon, the Argoon, and the Amoor, in the desert of Cobi, as far as the confines of China and Thibet. He is often tamed. He shows more intelligence than the common ass, but does not entirely lose the wildness of his disposition.§ The two-humped or Bactrian camel, wanders independent in the sandy deserts of Mongolia. The Yak, or wild grunting ox, (the *Vacca grunniens* of Gmelin, and Animals. The Yak.

* Pallas, Nouv. Mem. sur le Nord, II. 6.

† Kien-Long, eloge de Moukden. ‡ Pallas, Act. Petrop. 1777.

§ Sievers, Lettres sur la Sibérie, dans les nouv. Mem. du Nord, VII. 2141.

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the *Bubalus* of Pallas, frequents the open meadows. His reflected horns, his soft hair, four inches long on the belly, and his tail resembling that of the horse, show that he is not the father of our domestic ox.* This animal is called *Kalo* in the Bukharian and Tangoot languages, and *Sariuk* by the Kalmuks. An experiment made at Irkutsk proved that he could be raised and managed like our black cattle, but the milk of the female has an unpleasant taste of tallow.† The mountains in which the river Amoor takes its rise mark the limits which nature has prescribed to the rein-deer on the south, but the elk is found as low as the parallel of 45°. The argali or wild sheep, the goat, the chamois, the wild goat of Caucasus, the *Antelope gutturosa*, and the saiga, which is probably the yellow goat of Duhalde,‡ wander in flocks on the steepest mountains. The *Moschus mosciferus* or musk animal, which delights in boundless solitudes, inhabits Mongolia, Daooria, and the mountainous countries of the river Amoor; on the south he finds his way to Thibet, to China, and to Tonquin; and on the west, to the mountains of Cashmere: on the north, Pallas found him on the banks of the Yenisei, in the neighbourhood of Krasnoiarsk.§ Among the animals of the ferocious kind, are known the brown and the black bear, the common fox, the korsak, and the karagan, the white lynx, called *irgis* by the Kalmuks, the karakal,‖ (more properly Karakulak or "black ear,") and the manul, a species of the cat kind, like the ounce and tiger. The ounce is well known here, and is called Djulbars in the Kirguisian and Bukharian languages; but it is not a matter of certainty whether the true tiger has been seen. Central Asia possesses also the fur animals of Siberia, the ermine, the martin, the sable, the otter, which last swarms on the margins of the numerous lakes of the Kalmuk country;

Musk animal

* Nov. Comment. Petrop. V. Tab. 7. Pallas, Act. Petrop. I. p. 11.

† Georgi, Russie, III. (vol. IX.) p. 1649.

‡ Pallas, IV. p. 285. (4to.) compare with Gmelin, Nov. Comm. Petrop. VII. tab. 19.

§ Pallas, t. IV. p. 13.

‖ Guldentedt, Nov. Comm. Petrop. XX. p. 500.

the marmot, the striped squirrel, and different species of hares. Even this rapid and imperfect enumeration of the principal animals of central Asia shows that nature has in some measure assembled into one corner of the world species which elsewhere exist far separated from each other. This plateau, like that of Africa, is a central region, from which several animal races may be supposed to have descended into the surrounding countries. Even in that class of animals to which their power of flying seems to have assigned the whole world for a dwelling, Central Asia seems to claim as a native the beautiful and singular bird which holds an intermediate place between the pheasant and the peacock, the *luen* of the Chinese, the *Phasianus argus* of naturalists; it is also said to be found in China and Sumatra. BOOK XXXIX. Birds.

We shall now enter on more particular inquiries, beginning with the country nearest to Thibet and Independent Tartary.

The country improperly called LITTLE BUKHARIA extends on d'Anville's map between the 34th and 43d parallels of latitude, and between the 75th and 83d degrees of east longitude from London. Major Rennel has shown that in this particular the map of d'Anville is erroneous. The western frontier may be extended to the 69th degree of longitude. At least the towns of Cashgar, Yarkand, and Khoten, ought to be placed more to the west than they are by d'Anville. The letter of the Chinese general, quoted by Grosier, makes the distance between China and Cashgar nearly 280 miles greater than it is in d'Anville's map of Asia. LITTLE BUKHARIA. Situation.

Whatever may in that respect be the fact, eastern Bukharia, a country for a long time inhabited or governed by Tartars, and included under the name of Turkestan, must be bounded on the north and east by the Kalmuk country: on the south it comes in contact with Little Thibet, and the less known parts of Great Thibet: on the west, it is separated from Great Bukharia by the Beloot Tag, or Beloor mountains, and perhaps by a high plateau called the plain

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of Pamer, which has been considered as the country where the Indus takes its rise.

Nature of the territory.

The river of Yarkand crosses this country in an easterly course, and discharges itself into the lake Lop or Loknor, which seems to be a common receptacle for a great number of rivers. The territory seems to be plain and level in the middle, at least we hear of no mountain chain; but on the north and west it is encircled by mountains or elevated table lands. It is asserted that these contain many gold and silver mines, but neither the aborigines of the country nor the Kalmuks are acquainted with the art of working them: they content themselves with collecting the dust of these metals, brought down in abundance by the torrents which are formed by the melting of the snows, and carry it to China and Tobolsk in Siberia. It also affords some precious stones.

Province of Cashgar.

According to Marco Polo, the province of Cashgar has an extent of five days journey; it is covered with towns and castles, gardens and beautiful fields, producing good grapes, of which wine is made; there is also an abundance of fruit of other kinds. Cotton, flax, and hemp, are cultivated. The Chinese general who subdued this country in 1759,* writes that the soil is poor; the inhabitants covetous, and frugal in their mode of living;† that there are about 60,000 families, 1600 villages and hamlets in the province of Kashgar or Cashgar; but perhaps he meant the whole of Bukharia, which has received the name of the kingdom of Cashgar. The town of the same name, formerly the residence of the khans of eastern Bukharia, reckons, according to the same general, 2500 families. It is built of brick.

Province of Yarkand.

The province of Yarkand is situated to the east of Cashgar. It is called Earcan in one edition of Marco Polo; Barcan in the Treviso edition; Carchan and Carcam in others:

* Grosier's Account of China.

† Marco Polo, maravegliose cose del mondo. Edition of Melchior Sessa, Venice, 1508, cap. 38. (in the Imperial Library.) That of Treviso of 1590, greatly recommended by Pinkerton and Walkenaer, is imperfect, faulty, and insignificant, (Bibl. de Sainte-Genevieve.)

Boorkend, Oordakend, and Ardakend, in Abulfeda, Albergendi and other eastern writers.* This province is fertile in cotton and in all the necessaries of life. The people, according to M. Polo, are able artizans. But they are very generally subject to swelled legs and goitres, which are attributed to the water which they drink. Yarkand, situated on the river of the same name, is thought by some to be the present capital of Bukharia. The opinion of Petis de la Croix, who, in his learned notes on Sherefeddin, considers Yarkand as another name for Cashgar, is sufficiently refuted by the accounts of Marco Polo, and the Chinese general.

Province of Kotan.

The province of Koten or Kotan lies on the south-east† of the former. According to M. Polo, it is eight days journey in extent; cotton, flax, hemp, wheat, vines, and other useful vegetables, are cultivated here. The inhabitants are industrious and warlike.‡

Province of Karaia.

Karaia or Kereia, which is placed to the east of Kotan, is neither the Caria nor the Carit of M. Polo, which we shall find to be in the south of Thibet, and in the Birman empire. This province probably belongs to Little Bukharia. With regard to the two following provinces or countries, that point is less certain.

Province of Poym.

"On the south-east of Kotam," says M. Polo, "the province of Poym is situated," (in some editions it is written Peym,) "it contains several towns and castles; through the capital there runs a river, which carries down precious stones, such as chalcedony and jasper. This country produces abundance of silk." D'Anville and Forster consider it as an Oasis adjoining Little Bukharia; perhaps the Thibetian term *Poy*, which denotes a province or department, might justify the conjecture that Poym is the northern part of Thibet.

City of Ciarchian or Ciartiam.

All these provinces, says M. Polo, constitute part of Great Turkestan. "The first town is Ciarchian or Ciar-

* See d'Herbelot, Bibliotheque oriental. v. Khoten and Cashgar.

† The traveller says, "between Gorgo and Sosolan."

‡ As to their warlike character this passage of M. Polo is read by some so as to give the opposite meaning.

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tiam. Going from Ciarchian, a journey of five days, across a sandy country, containing salt waters and some fresh, we arrive at the confines of the Great Desert, where there is a town called Iob or Lop, situated east-north-east of Poym." We see nothing in this passage to show that Ciarchian is a separate canton to the east of Poym, as the translators have concluded. There is no necessity to make first a long turn to the south-east, and then come round in a northerly direction to go south-east a second time. This would be the tour which they give to M. Polo. But does he himself say that he was at Poym? We do not see that he does. Besides, the expression, first city, may designate the capital of Turkestan; now that capital was Yarkand, called before that Carcham. Might not that be the place of which M. Polo speaks? According to this hypothesis, it would be necessary to bring the city of Lop nearer, to shorten the course of the river Yarkand, and enlarge the extent of the desert.

Manner of living in the thirteenth century.

Eastern Turkestan, a country once rich and beautiful, had, in the time of Marco Polo, been ravaged by the Tartars, and was still exposed to their visits of devastation. Chalcedonies and jaspers are found in it. The inhabitants possessed flocks; every person after harvest hid his corn in a hole under the sand, in a place known only to himself, the surface being quickly smoothed over by the drifting sand of the desert. Always in dread of being robbed, they carried along with them no more than a month's provision. Perhaps the same description will still apply to the condition of this people.

Origin of the inhabitants.

The origin and manners of the people of Little Bukharia are little known; the population, notwithstanding the admixture of some Kalmuks, is chiefly composed of native Bukharians, who are said to have tawny complexions; but many among them are handsome and well-formed. Their language, which is called Zagathayan, is nothing else than the Turkish: their idiom is mixed with a great number of Persian words.

Bentinck tells us that here as in Great Bukharia, the Tartars give the townsmen the appellation of Taujiks or

tributaries. These never use arms, a circumstance which makes them contemptible in the eyes of the Tartars, to whom a regular tribute is paid by every town and village of the country. They differ from the wandering nations of the east in not being divided into tribes. The Chinese missionaries also make a distinction between the Bukharians and the Tartars.* But in that instance we must probably understand by Tartars the Kulmuks, by whom the country was conquered, and by the Bukharians the real Tartars or Turks. BOOK XXXIX.

The dress of the men goes no lower than the calf of the leg: it is bound by a girdle like the Polish garment. The women wear a similar one, with long ear-rings and pendents, like the women of Thibet; their hair is equally divided into long tresses, and adorned with ribbands. They dye their nails with the juice of *henné*. Both sexes wear long drawers, and boots of Russian leather: the head dress is the same with the Turkish. The generality of the houses are of stone, and decorated with furniture of Chinese manufacture. Tea is the general beverage of the country; it is taken with milk, butter, and salt, in the manner of the other nations of central Asia. The women are purchased, and hence handsome girls are a source of wealth to their parents. Dress.

The KALMUKS may be considered as the western Mongols. Mount Bogdo gave occasion to this ancient division of the tribes. After 1579, all the Kalmuk country acknowledged the dominion of the Emperor of China. The Khan-Taidsha could raise 20,000 men from Little Bukharia, by taking one man out of every ten families. This gives 200,000 families, equivalent to a population of a million. The Kalmuks themselves, without reckoning the Eleuths of Koko-Nor, probably amounted to a million. Their country, which comes in contact with China on the east, and Tartary on the west, is bounded by The KALMUKS.

* Duhalde, IV. p. 464.

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Siberia on the north, and Thibet on the south. Its surface is equal to the whole of France, Italy, and Spain; their latitudes are the same, but in climate, productions, and manners, the difference is very wide.

We have a very imperfect knowledge of the provinces, or rather deserts and oäses, which occupy that vast extent of country.

Kankaragay.

The elevated region which d'Anville calls Kankaragay, and in which the river Irtysh takes its rise, has probably one of the most rigorous climates of the old continent. Mount Bogdo, and the other mountains in the neighbourhood, are covered with perennial snow. The Tshahan-Tala, or white plain, is one of the most elevated plains in the world, and the same thing may be said of the environs of lake Zaizan. It seems to be among the mountains of Bogdo that we must search for the Ringui-Talas* of Marco Polo, a country which produced steel and asbestos, and which was sixteen days' journey from the province of Hamil.

Tshashan-Tala.

Songaria.

The country to which the name of Songaria properly belongs is a basin or concave plateau, bounded on the north by the mountains of Ulugh or Ulu-Tag, and on the south by the Alak chain. There is a series of lakes, the last and largest of which is the lake of Palcati or Balcash; we are told that a person can scarcely walk round it in fifteen days. It is about two degrees and a half long, and more than one degree in breadth. The river Ili, augmented by a number of other streams, falls into this lake, which has no outlet.

Lake Palcati.

It is on the banks of the Ili that the Songars, a tribe of Kalmuks, attracted by the exuberance of the pasture, had fixed the seat of their power; their Kham-Taidsha lived in a place called Harcash. There they kept immense droves of horses and fat-tailed sheep; their horned cattle and camels were not so numerous. The great Tamerlane, says an eastern historian, stopped on mount Ulugh to sur-

Camp of Harcash.

* In one edition of M. Polo called Chinchin-Talas.

vey the immense plain which spread out at its base like a sea of verdure.* This country was probably the *Organum* of the traveller Rubruquis,† and the Irgone-Kond of Abulgazi‡.

Organum.

The mountains on the south of Songaria comprehended according to d'Anville the ancient establishments of the Oïgoors or Igoors, the ancestors of the Hungarians. As it appears that these mountains are easily passed, except at the straits of Chongez, it is very possible that they may be only a series of plateaus of an elevation greater than that which serves as their base. Agriculture and trade formerly animated this country, which is watered by a multitude of small rivers. The civilization of the Oïgoors is as old as two centuries before the Christian era; their language was the Turkish; their letters are written from top to bottom like those of the ancient Syrians. Their alphabet, on which M. Langlès is preparing a work, seems to owe its origin to the devanaghari or Indian mode of writing.§ The country of the Oïgoors went also by the name of Getha; and perhaps the Getes, who were its inhabitants, were descended from the ancient Massagetes. This country includes likewise the canton of Turfan, situated on the declivity of the plateau of Oïgoor to the north of lake Loknor. Turfan is a considerable town, frequented by the merchants who travel between Persia and China. It is doubtless the Tarsæ or Tarso mentioned by King Haithon, and which he describes as the capital of the flourishing empire of the Iogours.

The Oïgoors and their country.

Getha.

"The empire of Tarsæ," says Haithon, in his history of the east, ch. 2, "contains three provinces, the chiefs of which are called kings. The inhabitants are called Iogoors; they abstain most rigidly from drinking wine and eating animal food. They raise much wheat, but have no vines. Their

* Histoire de Timur Bey, par Scherefeddin, traduite par Petis de la Croix, liv. III. ch. 10.

† Forster, Decouvertes dans le Nord, p. 170.

‡ Abulgazi, Histoire général des Tatars, liv. I. ch. 5.

§ Langlès, Alphabet Mantcheou.

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towns are very pleasant, and contain many temples dedicated to the worship of idols; they cultivate the arts and sciences, but are not at all addicted to war; they have a peculiar mode of writing, which has been adopted by all their neighbours."*

Town of Lop.

The town of Lop, mentioned by M. Polo, was situated on the river Yarkand, a little above the place where it falls into the lake of Loknor. On the journey from little Bukharia to China it was usual to stop here to make the necessary preparations for crossing the Great Desert.

Canton of Hamil.

Another road led to China by Hami, Hamil, or Chamul, a small province surrounded on all hands by deserts; "the climate," says the missionary Duhalde,† "is very warm in summer. The ground produces scarcely any thing but melons and grapes; the former in particular are of excellent quality; they are preserved during winter, and are served up at the table of the Emperor of China." Other writers make this country contain agate and diamond quarries.‡ The inhabitants are strong and large men, well clothed and lodged, and generally profess the Mahometan faith. In the time of Marco Polo they were idolators; he describes them as good-natured and merry savages, rich in the produce of their soil, and employed much in singing and dancing. When a traveller arrives in their country, and wishes to lodge with one of them, the person on whom his choice is fixed gives up his house, wife, and family, entirely to the guest, whom he invests for the time with all the prerogatives of the master of the family, quits his house, goes through the city in quest of every thing that can contribute to the gratification and amusement of his guest, and does not re-occupy his house till the latter has left it. Manghu-Khan wished in vain to abolish the practice. The inhabitants regard it as a precept of religion, and believe that by giving it up they

Singular customs.

* Haithon, Hist. Orient. t. 2.

† T. IV. p. 26 and 54.

‡ Grosier, Description de la Chine, p. 241, sqq.

would incur the risk of bringing the curse of sterility on their lands.* BOOK XXXIX.

Tangoot.

Leaving the sandy and saline plains of the great desert of Cobi, we come to the countries which formed in the twelfth century the powerful empire of Tangoot, which probably extended over the north-west part of China, the country of the Sifans, and perhaps over the whole or part at least of Thibet. Marco Polo gives a detailed description of it; Kampioo, which according to him was the capital of Tangoot, seems to be the Kantchoo of the Chinese, and Singaï the modern Sigan. Five days journey from Kampioo he places the country of Ergi or Ergiool, (the termination *iool* signifying "kingdom" in the Tangoot and Thibetian languages,†) where the musk animal, the grunting ox, and the Chinese pheasant, were seen. The moderns give Tangoot the name of Kokonor or Hohonor, *i. e.* the blue lake. In the Chinese geography it is called Zinchay.‡ Satchoo seems to be a considerable town, situated on a small stream which falls into the river Polonkir; and the latter runs into the desert, and terminates in a lake called Hara-nor.

Ergi country.

Satchoo.

The boundaries of Tangoot and Thibet are still wholly unknown to us. The Socor or Soocor of Marco Polo, where rhubarb grew, seems to be the Sooc of the map which the missionaries give of Thibet. Not far from this is the canton of Seri. The Bukharian merchants who brought rhubarb to Kiakta, told M. Pallas that "there was a town called Selin (perhaps Serin) situated to the south-west of lake Hoho-Nor, on a river which runs into the Hoang-ho; all the country consists of high and arid mountains; rhubarb grows in the clefts of the rocks in most places; the roots are pulled up in April and May, then cleaned and hung on trees."§

Socor or Soocor.

Town of Selin or Serin.

* Marco Polo, ch. 45.

† Mithridates, I. 72.

‡ Extract from Dai-syn-y-tundschi, in Busching's Magazin Geogr. XIV. 554.

§ Pallas, Voyages en Russie, IV. 216, (trad. in 4to.)

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Country of the Sifans.

The country inhabited by the Sifans, who speak the Thibetian language, is situated in the corner in which China, Tangoot, and Thibet meet.* It receives the name of Tosan, and was once a powerful empire, but fell to pieces in the ninth century of our era. The black Sifans, who live on the Hoang-ho or Hara-Moren, (the black river,) are less civilized than the yellow Sifans, who live on the banks of Yan-tse-Kiang, the yellow river. The horses of this country are small, but valued for their strength and other excellent qualities. Gold is found in the beds of the rivers.

Kalmuks.

Physical constitution.

The Kalmuks, who under the sovereignty of China rule the country now described, or at least the greater part of it, do not differ materially from the Mongols. They completely exemplify the portrait which Procopius, Ammianus, Priscus, and Iornandez, have drawn of the celebrated Huns. They are generally of a middling height, and more of them under than above the ordinary stature. Left to nature from their infancy, their bodies are universally well made, and their limbs free. The characteristic features of the Kalmuk countenance are the following: The angle of the eye is directed obliquely downward to the nose, the eye-brows black and thin, the interior ends of the arches which they form are low, the nose is flat and broad at the point, the cheek bones prominent, the head and face very round. Perhaps the way in which their caps are fitted close to the head makes their ears appear more prominent than they would otherwise do, but they are naturally large in proportion. Their teeth preserve their beauty and whiteness to the most advanced age. Their skin, naturally white, assumes a brownish yellow by exposure to the solar rays in summer, and to the smoke of their cabins in winter. This differs in degree in different individuals and in the two sexes. Many of the Kalmuk women have a handsome figure and a white complexion, the effect of which is increased by their fine black hair.† The acute-

* Regis dans Duhalde, IV. p. 463. † Pallas, Voyages, I. p. 491.

ness of the senses of smell, hearing, and sight among the Kalmuks, surpasses all the ideas that a European can form. They perceive by the smell the smoke of a camp, hear the neighing of a horse, and distinguish the most minute object in their immense plains, at an astonishing distance.

Kalmuk tribes.

The Kalmuks call themselves Derben Oerœt, "the Four Brothers or Allies." The four nations thus called are the Choshotes, called Sifans by the Chinese, consisting of 50,000 families, and occupying the neighbourhood of lake Hoho-nor; the Songares, in the country which bears their name, and who, though once very powerful, are reduced to 20 or 30,000 families; the Torgotes, who after having lived in Russia in the steppe of Astrakan, amounting to 60 or 70,000 persons, returned in 1770 to their original country; lastly, the Derbètes, some of whom have joined the Torgotes, and others the Songares. In addition to these nomade tribes, it appears that the towns are inhabited by Bukharians, Chinese, and perhaps stationary Kalmuks.

Dress.

The Kalmuks are fond of society and entertainments. They cannot bear to eat by themselves; their greatest enjoyment is to share their provisions with their friends. The dress of the men resembles that of the Poles, with the exception of the sleeves, which are very tight and buttoned at the wrist. The common people are clothed in sheep skins and felt. In summer the girls go with the neck bare down to the girdle. The men shave their heads, leaving only a small tuft; the women, on the contrary, are very tenacious of that article of attraction; their hair hangs loose till the age of twelve, when they are considered marriageable; then they collect it in braids surrounding the head; when married, they allow it to hang in two divisions over the shoulders.

Dwellings.

The dwellings of the Kalmuks are tents, or rather a sort of half cabins or wigwams of hurdles, in a circular form, covered with a roof of felt, which is proof against rain and snow.

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The Kalmuks prefer the freedom of their nomadic state and their portable dwellings, to all the conveniences of a settled life. Hunting, the care of the flocks, and the building of tents, are considered as the only occupations suited to the dignity of a free son of the desert. Domestic labours fall to the share of the women. They also pitch and strike the tents, saddle and bring out the horses; hours of leisure are as rare with them as they are frequent with the men. The Chinese endeavour to give the Kalmuks agricultural habits; in this they will not easily succeed, as the rugged climate and arid soil either banish rural culture from the greater part of their country, or render its produce precarious.

Occupations.

Mare's milk is preferred by almost all the people of Asia to that of the cow. This milk, in its recent state, is more fluid than cow's milk, but it has a slight alkaline taste, which makes it offensive to Europeans. When allowed to stand for a sufficient time in clean vessels, it acquires an acid, vinous, and very agreeable taste; and a few drops of cream can with some difficulty be obtained from it. The Kalmuks make from the milk a slightly spiritous drink, which they call *araka*, and not *koumis*, as is commonly said: kowmis is the Tartar, not the Kalmuk term for the milk of the mare.*

Mare's milk.

Their food consists almost entirely of articles of dairy, and the flesh of animals, generally what they take in hunting, for they seldom kill their domestic animals.

The felt with which their tents are covered is of their own manufacture. The women have uncommon skill in preparing the skins of animals, and making from them utensils of all kinds. The men manufacture some of their arms.

Industry.

The language of the Kalmuks is the same with that of the Mongols, and totally different from the Tartar, both in words and in syntax. It contains several proper names

Language.

* Pallas, Voyages, I. 491.

of Hunnic origin.* The frequency of monosyllables reminds us of the Thibetian and Chinese languages.† Deprived of articles, scarcely admitting the aid of pronouns, or the elegant effects of conjunctions, and giving few inflections to the verb, it appears one of the poorest, but also one of the most ancient languages in the world. It is said to be sonorous, harmonious, and poetical.‡ The affecting romances and epic poems of this people partake of the sombre and magnificent nature of their country. The rocks, the torrents, and the meteors of Ossian, figure here, along with legends of miracles not less wild and absurd than those of the Hindoos. Yet they contain features of sublime truth with which persons of all nations, whatever may be their factitious habits, must be pleased.§ The romantic story of one of their fugitive tribes begins thus: "The waters of the vast lake, after exhausting all their stormy fury, subside into a calm. Such are the troubles of this world, and their tranquil oblivion." These nomades have poems of twenty cantos and upwards, preserved by tradition alone. Their bards or *djangartshi* recite them from memory, surrounded by attentive and enraptured au-

Kalmuk poetry.

* Such as *Munzak, Athel, Denzik, Emedzar, Uti,* &c. See Bergmann's nomadische Strifereinen unter den Kalmuken, I. p. 125.

† Vocab. Petrop. No. 137. Falh, Mém. Topogr. III. 575, (in German.) Fischer's History of Siberia, introd. p. 40, (In German.)

‡ The following is a passage from a heroic romance in the Kalmuk language:

Tuchimail aïn kaimain aboodal inoo go tælghym ssaid-kill ino
Minister thus spoken countenance but elevated prophet mind but
amoogtaangtaï baiyai oosaisskylaintai gaigain inoo toonggoolak...Bi niggai
tranquil body important visage but serene. I a
sobylongtoo kækshin joockaï noossatoo mæn.
suffering old man very aged truly.

Translation. The minister thus spoke: thy noble countenance announces a prophet; thy mind is tranquil; thine exterior commanding; thy look serene. I am an old man, suffering and opressed with age. See Bergmann, in the work already referred to, I. 114.

§ Kalmuk Romances, in Pallas's Memoirs of the Mongolian Nations, I. p. 153, (in German.)

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diences.* Besides the Mongolic alphabet, which consists of forty-four letters joined perpendicularly, the Kalmuks have an Indian character called the *onetkak*, which they employ in their magical incantations.

Political constitution.

The ignorant arrogance of Europeans regards the free people of Asia as savages without laws or manners; but the khanats of Asia are at least equally respectable with our feudal governments of the middle age. The Kalmuks have three distinct classes in society: the nobility, who are called "white bones;" the common people, consisting of slaves, who are denominated "black bones;" and the clergy, who are descended from both of these castes, and consist of free men. The noble ladies are called "white flesh," and the women of the lower orders "black flesh." The genealogy is always reckoned by the male connections, or "the bones." The power of the Khan-Taïdsha, or head prince, must be estimated only by the number and importance of his subjects, and not at all by the extent of his territory, which in that vast country is of little value. The subjects of each chief form an *oolees*, which is divided into *imaks*, consisting of from 250 to 300 families; each imak is commanded by a Saissan or nobleman. When they have a great khan, the princes submit to his direction only in matters of general concern. The tribute consists of a tenth part of the flocks and other property. All the men are obliged to appear on horseback before the prince on the first summons when he has occasion for military service, and he dismisses those who are unqualified for the fatigues of war. They are armed with bows, lances, sabres, and sometimes fire-arms; but the latter are chiefly confined to men of rank. The rich warriors wear a coat of mail formed of rings, or that kind called chain armour, such as was used in Europe in the fifteenth century.

Religion.

The religion of the Kalmuks, in common with all the Mongolian, Mantchoorian, and Thibetian nations, is that

* Bergmann, II. 206, 236, &c.

of the Dalaï Lama. This sovereign priest is chosen from the yellow Sifans, whom Pallas considers as a Kalmuk tribe. In our description of Thibet we shall give a view of this system. We may only observe, that of all nations they are in most complete subjection to the dominion of priests, to whom they commit the direction of all their affairs; nothing is done without consulting a *gellong* or juggler, who pretends to interrogate the gods by means of sorceries. These *gellongs* levy a handsome tribute on their credulous flocks; they live in luxury; celibacy is enjoined on them, but considerable licences are considered as their right, particularly in the houses of those who shew them hospitality in the course of their frequent peregrinations.*

Gellongs or priests.

When we pass Mount Bogdo, we enter the country of the true MONGOLS. The middle of this region is a cold and barren table land; it forms the termination of the desert of Shamo or Cobi, which is about 1400 miles long, and the western and southern extremities of which extend to Thibet and Little Bukharia. The countries of Hamil, Lop, and other fertile Oäses, afford short interruptions to its frightful uniformity. There are meadows along the banks of the rivers where the small Mongolian horses wander in large droves, and the wild djiggetai comes to take his rapid meal in the pasture.

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Desert of Cobi or Shamo.

The countries in the neighbourhood of the great wall of China have a climate similar to that of Germany. The prevalent soil is of a clay texture. At Zhe-holl, on the confines of Mongolia, in lat. 41° 58′, the English accompanying Lord Macartney saw aspens, elms, hazel and walnut trees; but on the mountains the pines were small, and the oaks stunted.† The Yellow or Sharra Mongols wan-

Country of the Sharra Mongols.

* "Célibat leur est prescrit; mais quand ils voyagent, ils ont le droit de partager le lit de leurs hôtesses, et ils voyagent souvent."

† Macartney's Embassy.

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der in this country, while the Kalkas, or Black Mongols, occupy the places lying north of the great desert. This last country, adjoining Siberia, is very little known. Ac-

Kalkas Mongols.

cording to the accounts given by Pallas, Sokolof, and Patrin, Russian Daooria is subjected to powerful summer heats, and the secondary mountains are covered with beautiful forests of pines, birches, elms and poplars; while the plains support numerous flocks, and may be cultivated for several sorts of grain. It was natural to infer that Chinese Daooria, and some other parts of the north of Mongolia, resemble it in climate and productions. The journey of the last Russian embassy being begun in the middle of winter, and stopping at a distance of about 200 miles from the frontier, we only know that the country contains arid

Mountains.

plains and steep mountains, many of them wooded, and abounding in wild boars, deer, and elks.* There is a mountain here held in peculiar veneration, called Khan-Ola, or the "Royal Mountain," on which there are several temples and sepulchres. It is thought that the principal tin mines of the Chinese are in this country. It is ascertained that the Chinese have a very profitable establishment of iron works near lake Iroi, about forty miles from Kiakta.

Rivers.

The Hoangho traverses part of southern Mongolia. About the middle, and farther to the east, there are many small rivers which are lost in the sands. In the north the Selingha and the Orchon carry their waters to lake Baïkal, while the Kerlon and the Onon join to form the magnificent river Amoor, which flows through the territory of the Mantchoos.

Lakes.

At the base of the Bogdo mountains we find the great lake Kosogol, and some others of considerable extent. Marco Polo has left us a description of the lake Cianga, which seems to be identical with Tsahan, or Tsahan-Nor. On the banks of this lake the great khan had a country seat; it abounded with swans, *Phasiani argi*, cranes, partridges,

* Account of the Russian Embassy. Ephém. Géogr. XXI. p. 225.

and quails; but the cold being severe, the khan visited it only in summer.* BOOK XXXIX.

Towns.

It has been thought by several authors that this country was once filled with large cities; but it is much more probable that the Mongols have never been sufficiently numerous, nor sufficiently rich and industrious, to build cities worthy of the name. Even the famous Karakorum, the Ho-lin of the Chinese, the seat of a great Mongolian empire, was built of earth and wood. Perhaps it was a summer residence, like the present Zhe-holl, where the emperor of China received the British ambassador Lord Macartney. Zhe-holl contains a spacious Chinese palace, extensive and magnificent gardens, some pagodas or temples, and a crowd of wretched huts. If deserted, the whole would disappear in less than a century. It is matter of no surprise that we search in vain for any vestiges of Karakorum. According to d'Anville it is situated on the Engui-Moren, about the 44th degree of latitude, and 106th of longitude (from London); but according to Fischer,† on the banks of the Orchon, at 103° of longitude and 47° of latitude. The princes and chief priests of the Kalkas-Mongols lived not many years ago in a camp called the Oorga, about 220 miles from Kiakta, on the river Tula; this camp has been converted into a town, and called Kyræ.‡ The temples, the houses of the priests, and the house of the Chinese viceroy, are the only wooden edifices; the rest consist of tents.

Karakorum.

Kyræ.

Other towns.

Maimatshin, a small town on the very frontier of Russia, is the seat of the trade with Kiakta. Naoon is a mercantile town, at the distance of a month's journey in a south-east direction from the Russian post of Zooroochaitu, on the river Argoon; the merchants of that place come to this post armed with bows and arrows, and bring with them

* Marco Polo de Reb. Orient. I. ch. 64. Forster, Découvertes dans le Nord, I. p. 230.

† Introduction to the History of Siberia, (in German.)

‡ Éphém. Géogr. XXI. 230. Bruns, Aussereuropæische Geogr. I. 69.

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stuffs of excellent manufacture. Their language is neither Chinese nor Mongolic.*

The Mongols. Physical description.

The Mongols, like the Kalmuks, have flat noses, small oblique eyes, thick lips, short chins, and scanty beards; their ears are large and prominent; their black hair adds to the effect of their reddish-brown or yellow complexions. But more civilized, in consequence of their former residence in China, they are more tractable, more hospitable, and more addicted to pleasure. The Russians of Dacoria consider the Mongolian women as more fertile than their own. These women are also industrious and cheerful. The religious books of the Mongolians are written in the language of Tangoot or Thibet, and every imak has a schoolmaster. The lamas or priests, and their heads the *khutuctu*, enjoy great consideration, and are under the authority of the great Dalaï Lama.

Religion.

Mode of living.

Polygamy, though allowed, is uncommon. They marry very young, and the women bring to their husbands a portion in cattle or in sheep. They light their fires in the middle of their tents; and in the deserts cow-dung is used as fuel. The tents of the nobility are hung with silk stuffs in the inside, and the floors covered with Persian carpets. Tin, silver, and porcelain vessels are used in the houses of the great. The tents of the common people are made of a kind of felt. In some places they erect small temples, round which wooden houses are built.

Dress.

They shave their heads, leaving only one ringlet, and cover them with a flat-shaped yellow cap. This at least is the case among the Sharra Mongols. They wear wide pantaloons, a small vest with tight sleeves, and a girdle in which they stick the sabre, the knife, and smoking apparatus. The upper part of their dress is of woollen cloth, with wide sleeves; their feet are wrapped in linen, over which they wear leather boots, which are generally either black or yellow. They are not yet so far advanced in luxury as to use shirts. The Mongols live on animal food,

Food.

* Sokolof, dans Pallas, Voyage, IV. p. 620. 4to.

which they sometimes eat with peas or beans; water is their ordinary drink; they regale themselves with milk, butter, and kowmiss; they have also become acquainted with the use of spirits, of mead, and still more of tea. Their flocks consist of horses, camels, black cattle, sheep, and goats. The women tan leather, cleanse the esculent roots, cure the winter provisions by salting or drying, and distil the kowmiss, or spirit of mare's milk. The men shoot the winged game, and hunt the animals which wander in great numbers over the vast desert.

Singular cookery.

When the Mongols travel, they dress a whole sheep in its own skin; they take off the skin, and convert it into a kind of bag, which they fill with water, along with the flesh stripped from the bones, and throw into it, one after another, a number of stones red hot. The meat is thus completely cooked, and the broth is excellent.*

Peregrinations.

When the pasture begins to fail, all the tribes strike their tents, which takes place from ten to fifteen times in a year. In summer their progress is northward, and in winter southward. The flocks, the men, the women, and the children, form a regular procession, followed by the young women, singing cheerful songs. The amusements of these wandering and happy tribes are horse races, in which even the young women excel; archery, wrestling, pantomime, singing performed by young women, and generally accompanied by the violin and the flute. The subjects of these songs are love adventures; the language is highly inflated, but the melody harsh and disagreeable. Drafts are a favourite game among them. The bodies of the princes and chief priests are burned with great solemnity, and their tombs are generally encircled with walls, and ornamented with very high poles, on which strange looking flags are fixed.

Games and songs.

Marriage of the dead.

We do not know whether the Mongols still retain a superstitious but affecting custom described as prevalent among them in the time of Marco Polo.† When two fa-

* Imbrig, in the Selection of Memoirs of the Economical Society of Petersburgh, III. 341, (in German.)

† Marco Polo de Reb. Orient. I. cap. 58.

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milies lost at the same time favourite children of different sexes, they made between their manes what they called marriages of the dead; these alliances were celebrated at the graves of the children with much solemnity; and the respective relations afterwards conducted themselves to one another as persons united by the ties of blood.

The Mongols, though less addicted to superstition than the Kalmuks, have more external appearance of religious worship. They build temples, some of which are of stone. Books are more common among them than among the Kalmuks. They have, in addition to their ordinary writing, a kind of short-hand called *akshar*, derived from the Tangoot. Their common alphabet contains 98 characters, some of which represent whole syllables.* This alphabet seems to be in a great measure borrowed from the Oïgoors. The Mongolic language, which is little known, is the same as that of the Kalmuks already described.

Writing.

Alphabet.

Government.

The khans of southern Mongolia are entirely subject to China, pay an annual tribute, and present themselves at the emperor's court in the posture of the humblest vassals. But no tribute seems to be exacted of the khans of the Kalkas. They receive, on the contrary, a small salary from the emperor, which is no doubt as an acknowledgment for their station as a garrison to protect the Russian frontier. To complete the view of the imperfect but remarkable civilization of the Mongols, it must be stated that, since 1620, they have been in possession of a complete code of laws, subscribed by forty-four princes and chiefs. In these the greater part of crimes are punished by fines, and actions of public utility are rewarded. He who refuses milk to a traveller is fined of a sheep. The evidence of the ordeal is admitted, likewise solemn oaths from a superior warranting the innocence of an inferior; institutions coinciding with those which existed in Europe during the middle ages.

Laws.

* Bayer, Elem. litter. Mongol., in the comment. Petrop. III. 180. IV. 289.

BOOK XL.

MANTCHOORIA AND COREA.

General view of the country of the Mantchoos.

THE central zone of Asia ends with Mongolia and the Siolki chain of mountains. The rivers no longer flow along an elevated plain. The ground inclines to the sea of Okhotsk on the one side, and the Yellow Sea on the other. The plants and the trees of temperate climates begin again to appear; but to the east a high chain of mountains, parallel to the shores of the sea of Corea, is continued through the peninsula of this name, and by its elevation and its extensive forests counteracts the favourable influence of the solar heat. Though under the same latitudes with France and Italy, these mountains have very long and rigorous winters; but the central parts, which are watered by the river Amoor, enjoy undoubtedly a milder climate. If the agriculture of these parts is deficient, the fault must be ascribed to the indolence and ignorance of the inhabitants. The territory situated on the Yellow Sea, or the province of Leaotong, seems to enjoy a climate resembling that of Germany and the north of France.

Mountains.

The mountains surrounding Zhe-holl are not very high.* They present no regular chain, but rather an undulating surface, and are composed of a hard clay mixed with gravel. Perhaps the high chain of mountains on the shore of the

* Staunton's Account of the Chinese Embassy.

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sea of Tartary is completely detached from the central chains of Asia. In the north the Stanovoi mountains send several branches to the banks of the river Amoor; but we know nothing of their nature. On all that coast there is frost and snow in the middle of September.

River Amoor, or Seghalien.

The Chinese geographers tell us that the river Amoor rises in the mountain of Kente in Mongolia. At first it is called the Onon; after receiving the Ingada near Nertchinsk, it receives the name of the Amoor.* The Russians call this united stream the Shilka; it is after the Shilka is joined by the Kerlon that they call it the Amoor. The length and size of the Shilka and Kerlon appear to be equal. The Amoor, called Seghalien-Oola† by the Mantchoos and Tungooses, receives from the south two great rivers, the Songari-Ula, in Chinese *Chuntungian*, and the Usuri or Usuli. It falls into the sea of Okhotsk, forming a large gulf bounded on the east by the shores of Seghalien Island, and communicating on the south with the sea of Corea, or the channel of Tartary, by a narrow opening; the mouth of it being in some measure concealed by aquatic plants. Deep and still, it presents no impediment to navigation; it has neither rocks nor shallows; its banks are lined with magnificent forests.‡ The Russians complain greatly of the perfidy of the Chinese, who by force and surprise obliged the Russian plenipotentiaries to make a formal cession of the lower part of that fine river, which was indispensable to the masters of eastern Siberia, and on which the Cossacks had already fixed the standard of Russia.

* *Day-syn-y-tundshi*, the Chinese Geography, in 24 vols. translated (in the form of an abridgment or series of extracts) into Russian by Mr. Leontiew, and into German by M. Hase, in Busching's Geograph. Mag. XIV. p. 462.

† The Russians make it Saghalyn, but the natives, according to Perouse, pronounce it Seghalien.

‡ See Muller's Memoir on the river Amoor, composed by order of the Russian Government in 1740, in Busching's Mag. Géogr. II. 507. See also the History of the Country on the Amoor in the Collections in illustration of the history of Russia, II. 289, (in German.)

Mantchooria, so confusedly described in our geographical works, is clearly enough delineated in those of the Chinese. That country forms the government of Shengyn or Shin-Yang, divided into two *foos* or sub-governments; that of Fyntien or Leao-Tong in the south, on the Yellow Sea; and that of Mantchoo on the Amoor and the sea of Corea. Chinese divisions.

The province of Leao-Tong is described in the following manner by the Emperor Kien-Long in the "Eloge of Mookden," (of which we have a French translation executed by Amyot,) a feeble and frigid production as a poem, but very useful to the geographer. "In a space of 10,000 *ly* we find a succession of hills and valleys, parched lands, and others which are well watered, majestic rivers, impetuous torrents, graceful serpentine streams, smiling plains, and forests which are impenetrable to the solar rays. The Iron mountain and the Ornamented Mountain * are seen from a great distance. On the latter is found a lake which never increases nor diminishes." The imperial poet mentions among the trees of this country the pine, the cypress, the acacia, the willow, the apricot, the peach, and the mulberry. Wheat yields a return of a hundred fold. Southernwood and mugwort would cover all the fields, but, from the general cultivation, are found only in the deserts. Ginseng grows in all the mountains; its name signifies "Queen of Plants." "It would make man immortal if he were capable of becoming so." Among animals, Kien-Long mentions the tiger as in no degree formidable, which is perhaps the lion without a mane figured in Nieuhoff;† the leopard, by which he undoubtedly means a species of the ounce; the dchigheteï, the wild horse, two species of ounces, the civet, and the sable. The dogs rarely bark during the day; they seem to be of the Siberian race. The pheasant is conspicuous among the numberless birds with which the fields, the forests, and the banks of rivers and lakes, together with the sea-shores, are

Province of Leao-Tong.

Trees.

Animals.

* Mont Brodé. † See the account of China in a subsequent Book.

BOOK XL.

peopled. The sturgeon, the king of fishes, the carp, the eel, and other excellent species, form the food of entire tribes. The mother-of-pearl of this country is of admirable quality. To these riches are to be added iron and jasper.*

Towns.

Mookden, in Chinese Shin-Yang, was the residence of the last sovereigns or *shwandis* of the Mantchoos, immediately before the conquest of China. It contains several temples, and one in particular where the monarch prays alone on the first day of the year. The town is surrounded by two walls, the outer one being eleven miles in circumference. Leao-Yang is also a considerable town.

Province of Mantchoo.

The province of Mantchoo, which produces copper, iron, jasper, pearls, and furs, contains a middling sized town of

Towns.

the same name. Yenden, in Chinese Sin-Tchin, is the old residence of the Mantchoo princes, to whose memory magnificent monuments have been raised by their successors. The precise situation of that town is not known. Ooanlin the largest town of the country, Ningoota the capital of a military government, Tzitchakar, Merghen, and Seghalien-Oola, are marked as small fortresses on the map of d'Anville.

The Yupi.

The general denomination of *Yupi* is given to the nomade fishermen; such were all the poor inhabitants of the eastern coast, a good-hearted and simple race, who were visited at a few places by the unfortunate La Perouse. One tribe of them, called the *Ghiliaiky*, lives on the two banks of the Amoor or Seghalien near its mouth. The tribe of the Natki or Atchani begins higher up the river about fourteen days sailing. Both tribes are dressed in fish skins during summer. The Natki use dogs for drawing their carts. The Ghiliaikes are said to employ tamed bears for a similar purpose.†

View of the eastern coast.

To La Perouse the eastern coast appeared to be almost a desert. On every hand a luxuriant vegetation reminded

* *Day-syn-y-tundschi.*

† The Cossacks Payarkow and Shabarow, quoted by Muller in the work already referred to, p. 504, 505.

the mariners of their dear native country, which they were never more to behold. The lofty mountains were adorned with the spreading branches of the oak, and the verdant pyramidal forms of the pine. In the lower grounds the willows drank the moisture of the rivers. The birches, the maples, and the medlar trees, rustled in the winds. The lily, the rose, and the convallaria, perfumed the meadow. The spring was that of Europe, the flora nearly that of France. But there was no trace of the slightest commencement of cultivation; no proof that these fine shores had ever been inhabited by human beings; no paths but those of the bear and the stag were formed across the rank herbage, often four feet in height. A grave and some fishing utensils seemed to indicate that some wandering tribes came occasionally from the interior to give a momentary disturbance to the fishes which swarmed at the mouths of the rivers.* It is strange to find a country so highly susceptible of culture in the state of an absolute desert at the very gates of the ancient empire of China, in which the exuberance of the population often proves the cause of famine in all its horrors.

Marine plants.

The sea of Japan brings to the shores immense floating meadows of marine plants, so that the anxious mariner often apprehends that his vessel is entangled by a new land, seeming to rise up from the waters which it conceals from view. In the extensive fogs which beset these countries, an optical illusion often presents the appearance of elevated and extended lands : the seaman draws near them and thinks of landing, when the fairy scene suddenly dissolves in vapour and disappears.

Population.

The whole of Mantchooria, according to the Chinese geography, contains no more than 47,124 tributary peasants, but the aboriginal people are not included in this number, which probably consists of colonists from China. The country furnishes 10,000 Mantchoo soldiers.

* La Perouse, Voyage autour du Monde, III. 12, 15, 16, etc.

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The Mantchoos belong to the great race called the Tungoos by the Russians and Tartars, and the *Oven* in their own language.* The Daoorians are Mantchoos, but mixed with Mongols. Several tribes, such as the Dutcheri on the banks of the Amoor about the middle of its course, the Solons on the Argoon, and others, seem to differ only in slight shades of civilization. The Mantchoos, under the name of *Nieutch'*, before the twelfth century, subjugated the Leaos or Khitans, to whom they had previously been vassals, and who inhabited the province of Mookden; in 1115, they invaded the north of China, where these princes founded the dynasty of *Kin*, which means gold.† Dispossessed by the Mongols, they returned to their wild mountains, whence they issued afresh in 1640 under the name of Mantchoos, to make the conquest of the whole of China, which still yields them an obedience mingled with hatred, and interrupted by partial rebellions.

Mantchoos. Different tribes.

The Mantchoos were acquainted with agriculture, and even had a code of laws before they conquered China. That extension of power has injured their native country, as the leading families have emigrated to China.

Religion.

According to the accounts of the Jesuits, the Mantchoos have neither temples nor idols; they worship one Supreme Being, whom they style the emperor of heaven. Yet the religion of the Mantchoos who are settled in China has an affinity with the system of shamanism. Of the three great nations of central Asia, the Mantchoos may be considered as the most advanced in civilization, particularly since they have conquered China. And their progress in this respect must of late have been still greater, as the last emperor ordered the best Chinese books to be translated into the language of the Mantchoos. These people are more robust in their figure, but have less expressive countenances

* Pallas, Memoirs on the Mongolic Nations, I. p. 2. (in German.) Georgi, Description des Nations Russes, p. 302. Langlès, Alphabet Mantchoo, p. 41.

† Langlès, Alphabet Mantchoo, p. 30, 36, 40, &c.

than the Chinese. Their women have not, like those of the latter, their feet cramped and distorted; their head dress consists of natural and artificial flowers. Their general dress is the same with that of the Chinese.

Language. The Mantchoo, Mongolic, and Tartar languages differ radically from one another. M. Langlès, who has published a Mantchoo dictionary, asserts that it is the most perfect and learned of the Tartar idioms, without excepting that of Thibet, though it did not appear in a written form before the seventeenth century. At that period, the Mantchoo monarch ordered men of learning to write out a set of letters similar to those of the Mongols. The alphabet of the Mantchoos contains fifteen hundred groups of syllables, which M. Langlès has attempted to reduce to twenty-nine letters, the greater part of which have three different forms, as adapted to the beginning, the middle, and the end of a word.

Alphabet.

Remarks on the Mantchoo language. We shall not dwell on the frequency of *onomatopœias*, or words imitating of natural sounds, nor on the extreme softness of the language, which never admits of two consonants without an intermediate vowel; nor its copiousness in particles capable of being joined to words to modify their meaning; nor on the great number of inflections given to the verb as in the Hebrew and Arabic. The consideration of these characteristics belongs properly to the philologist. But we must not pass over in silence a fact which seems connected with the ancient migrations of mankind. The Mantchoo language, though it belongs to the eastern extremity of the old continent of which we inhabit the western extremity, has many radical sounds bearing a close affinity to those of the languages of Europe.*

* The following may be taken as a specimen:

Mantchoo terms.	*European terms.*
Hife, oats.....	*Avoine*, (French.) *avena*, (Latin.) *hafer*, (German.)
Morin, a horse.....	*Mæhre*, (German.) *mare*, (English.)
Fara, a sledge.....	*Fahren*, to ride in a carriage, (German.)
Tchop, top of a mountain.....	*Schopf*, a summit (in German.)
Oora, the back part or rear.....	*ουρα*, the tail, (Greek.)

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These do not consist of terms of art, which might have been brought by German prisoners of war carried to Asia by the Mongols, nor of words borrowed from natural sounds connected with the objects which they denote, and thus derived from a source common to all mankind. The resemblance, besides, only extends to the Gothic-German and Latin-Greek languages, which, as we have observed, have also affinities with the Sanscrit. Nothing in the Mantchoo language has the appearance of being Celtic or Sclavonian. There is only one feature which reminds us of the Sarmatian or Lithuanian,* but this feature is also common to the Indo-Germanic languages. These roots, common to languages locally separated by half of the width of the globe, seem to indicate the Mantchoos to belong originally to the neighbourhood of Persia and of India.

COREA.

Between the islands of Japan and Mantchooria is the great peninsula of COREA, washed by the Sea of Japan on the east, and on the west by the Yellow Sea or Gulf of Pekin. This country is about 640 miles in length; but one third of this length does not belong to what properly forms the peninsula. Its breadth, at its northern and its southern end, is from 250 to 280 miles; but at the place where the true peninsula begins, the width does not exceed 140.

Mountains.

The only well known feature of the physical geography of Corea is the existence of a high chain of mountains in

Kaka.....*Cacare*, (Latin.) *caca*, (French.)
Sengui, blood.....*Sanguis*, (Latin.) *sang*, (French.)
Ania, a year.....*Annus*, (Latin.) *an*, (French.)
Fahala, blackish....*Fahl*, (German.)
Fialhu, indolent.....*Faul*, (German.)
Furu, mad.....*Furor*, (Latin.) *fureur*, (French.)
Lapta, torn.....*Lappen*, (German.)
Leta, slow.....*Late*, (English.)
See Adelung's Mithridate, 1. 516.

* The syllable *bu*, the auxiliary by which the passive voice is formed in Mantchoo, is the *buwi*, "I am" of the Sarmate-Lithuanians, the *be* of the English, the *bin* of the Germans, and the *fui* of the Latins.

a direction from north to south, and which seems to have a connection with the mountains of Mantchooria. This long chain, when it enters the peninsula, runs parallel to the shore of the Japanese Sea, at a very short distance. The most easterly province has the name of Kiang-yuen, or "the Country of Springs." The general inclination of the land is to the Yellow Sea. The coasts and adjoining islands are rocky and difficult of access. Two large rivers are known in this country, the Ya-loo and the Tu-men. The first discharges itself into the Western Sea; the second into the Eastern. Both are in the northern parts of Corea, and beyond its peninsular part. They take their rise in the same mountain, which is very high, and is called by the Chinese *Shang-Pecha*, and by the Mantchoos, *Shen-Alia*, or "the Mountain of Perpetual Whiteness."

Rivers.

It is said that Corea, though in the latitude of Italy, has a very cold climate, from the mountains which it contains. We are told that in the northern parts, snow falls in so large quantities as to render it necessary to dig passages under it in order to go from one house to another. Yet the soil is fertile and well cultivated. Among its mineral treasures are gold, silver, lead, iron, topazes,* and rock salt. The most common animals, according to Father Regis, are wild boars, bears, sables (in the northern parts,) martens, beavers, and deer. The rivers abound in fish, and, according to Hamel, who says he lived nine years in the country, *kaïmans*, a kind of crocodiles, are found here, some of which are thirty or forty feet in length. The missionaries also heard of birds with remarkable long tails, which undoubtedly belong to a species of pheasants. There are poneys little more than three feet high.

Climate.

Minerals.

Animals.

The mountains of the north are covered with vast forests: their only other produce is barley and ginseng, the root of which last is so precious in the eyes of the

Vegetables.

* Dai-sin-y-tundshi, in Busching, Mag. Geogr. XIV. p. 531.

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Chinese. The southern provinces abound in rice, millet, and a species of *panicum* from which a vinous liquor is made; in hemp, tobacco, lemons, and silk. A tree of the palm kind produces a gum which, when used as an ingredient in varnish, gives it the appearance of gilding.

Names. The true names of Corea are *Kao-li* and *Tchao-sien*; the former is its ancient name, and still used in common language, the latter its modern appellation, and adopted in the official style. Both of them are derived from the names of dynasties which have reigned in the country.*

Provinces. It is divided into eight provinces; King-ki in the centre; Ping-ngan, Hoang-hai, and Tchu-sin, on the western shore; Tsuen-lo, in the south; Kin-han, Kiang-yuen, and Hien-king, on the Eastern Sea.

Towns. The Corean towns have the same general appearance with those of China. But the houses are built of mud, without art, and destitute of convenience; in some places they are raised on stakes. The houses of the nobility have more external show, and are surrounded with extensive gardens. King-ki-tao, in the province of King-ki, is the capital and royal residence. The great wall which the Coreans had built as a bulwark against the inroads of the Mantchoos

Islands. is now falling to ruin. The coast of Corea was found by the Alceste and the Lyra† to be every where surrounded with numerous islands, which had been mistaken by former navigators for a part of Corea itself. The island of Quelpaert, to the south of Corea, has been rendered famous by a number of shipwrecks.

The Coreans. Physical constitution. The Coreans are a well made people, of an agreeable physiognomy, and very polished manners. In a state of subjection for ages to a foreign yoke, they have contracted the vices of servitude. They are much addicted to pleasure, loose, false, and so habituated to cheating and theft that even the Chinese are taken in by them. Any seamen who are unfortunate enough to suffer shipwreck on their

* Duhalde, IV. p. 431. † See Captain Hall's Account of Lew-tchoo.

shore are reduced to slavery, a custom to which several barbarous nations have resorted under the influence of fear. BOOK XL.

Diseases of an epidemic nature have struck such a terror into the Coreans, that they are in the practice of carrying their sick out to the fields, and leaving them without assistance to their fate.

Marriages are prohibited between relations within the fifth degree. Children are married at seven or eight, and the bride lives in the house of her father-in-law. Polygamy is allowed, but the husband cannot take any except the first wife into his house. It would appear that the women, like those of China, are shut up in secluded apartments, and not allowed to be seen by strangers. Customs.

The dead bodies of persons of distinction are often kept for three years in a coffin before they are buried. They make the graves on high grounds, and by the side of the defunct they lay arms, utensils, and various articles of which he made use during his life.

The Chinese have introduced their arts, their sciences, and their language into Corea. The literati of this country form a separate order in the state, and are distinguished by two feathers stuck in their caps. They undergo many examinations as in China; but their learning is confined to the philosophy of Confucius. They make use of the Chinese language and characters; the vernacular languge of Corea is wholly different, and, like that of the Mantchoos, has a peculiar alphabet. They write with pencils made of wolf's hair,* and print their books with wooden blocks. Their language is too little known to enable us to form any judgment of its merits. It contains some Chinese and Mantchoo words; but the greater part of it seems to belong to neither.† Perhaps it may be a Language, learning, &c.

* Kircher, China illustrata, p. 232. Nieuhof, Ambassade, P. II. p. 403.

† The pater-noster in pretended Corean, in the Oratio Dominica of M. Marcel, p. 26, appears to Adelung to be written in the Chinese dialect.

BOOK XL.

dialect similar to that of Japan and the Kurile islands; or Corea and Japan may have contained an indigenous language and nation previously to their having received colonies from China and Mantchooria. It is left for future travellers to elucidate these questionable points.

Religion.

Here, as in China, the philosophy of Confucius is the prevailing doctrine among the great and the learned. But the idolatrous religion of Foh or Budha has many followers. The Corean ambassadors told the missionaries at Pekin, that the bonzes were kept in a state of degradation, and obliged to build their temples without the limits of their towns. There are monastic orders, or religious associations, the members of which lead an austere life, suffer with patience the most cruel persecutions, observe a great number of ceremonies, and in recompense for so many sufferings only meet with universal contempt. Of these, there are some whose rules oblige them to have the head shaved, to abstain from animal food, and to shun the sight of women.

Monastic orders.

Industry. Trade.

The Coreans manufacture a very white and very strong paper from cotton. They also make fans and painted papers for ornamenting rooms, and very fine linens.* The other branches of their industry are unknown. The Chinese purchase their different articles in exchange for tea and silks. The Coreans also carry on some trade with the Japanese. Pu-shan, or according to other accounts, Kin-shan, is the port to which the Japanese vessels bring their goods, such as pepper, fragrant wood, alum, and buffalo's horns. In exchange, the Coreans give lead, cotton, raw silk, and ginseng root. Payments are made in small ingots of silver: the only coin is copper.

Government.

Corea, originally divided into several small states, was subjugated and civilized by some Chinese adventurers, at the head of whom was prince Kitsé. The wise laws given them by this conqueror produced a golden age; but that happy epoch is as far back as a thousand years before our

* De Guignes, Voyage à Pékin, I. 410-411.

vulgar era. It appears certain that Corea has been subdued by the Japanese, the Mantchoos, and the Chinese in succession: the last alone have maintained their ascendency. The kings of Corea, confounded among the other vassals of the Chinese empire, send to Pekin an annual tribute and ambassadors, who are not received with much distinction. In his own country, however, the king is absolute; a numerous court and a well furnished seraglio contribute to the splendour of his throne. All the inhabitants are bound to work for the sovereign for three months; and to the large revenues of his own domains this prince adds the produce of the royal tithe, taken in kind on productions of every sort. It appears from the account of Hamel, that the nobles exercise, in their respective districts, a very oppressive feudal power; they allow no house but their own to be roofed with tile; the people are obliged to live under roofs of thatch.

Armed force.

The soldiery are very numerous, but they would not be formidable to Europeans. They are armed with bad muskets, bows, and whips. Their ships of war are superior to those of China, and appear to be imitations of the Portuguese galleys. They are mounted with cannons, and furnished with fire-pots. The fortresses, situated on high mountains, have a sort of military monks for part of their garrison. According to one modern account, the Japanese hold the sovereignty of a part of Corea,* but M. Krusenstern is of opinion that the power of the Emperor of Japan is confined to the island of Tsoo-Sima, situated in the strait of Corea.

* Zach's Correspondance, I. 21.

SYNOPTIC TABLE

Of the Nations vulgarly called Tartars, inhabiting the North, the Centre, and the East of Asia.

N.B.—This Table relates to all the nations mentioned in Books xxxvi.—xl.

I. TATAR RACE.

I. Turks or Southern Tatars.

1. Turks of Turkestan.
2. Turcomans to the east of the Caspian Sea, in Persia, Armenia, and Asia Minor.
3. Usbeks, in Khiwa and Great Bukharia.
4. Bukharians, in the towns of the two Bukharias.
   N.B. Perhaps they are descended from a mixture of Persians, and Tartars.
5. Karamans, or Turks of Karamania, originally from Turkestan.
6. Osmanlis, or Turks of Anatolia, Constantinople, &c. who have come from Turkestan.

II. Northern Tatars.

7. Nogaïs Tatars, in the Crimea, on the Kuban, and in Bessarabia. They are called Mankat, and have a mixture of Mongolian blood.
   a. Budziaks, in Bessarabia.
   b. Iedsan, in the Crimea, and on the Kuban.
   c Jamboilook, on the Kuban.
   d. Kubanians, ditto.
   e. Kumuks, in Eastern Caucasus.
   f. Basians, in Upper Caucasus, &c. See Book XXV.
8. Koomanians, from the banks of the Kooma, at the foot of Caucasus, living in Great and Little Koomania, in Hungary.
9. Tatars of Kiptchak. The old Khanat of Kiptchak included Kasan, Orenberg, and Astrachan. That division may be subdivided into
   a. Tatars of Kasan, who speak a pure dialect, and are the most civilized of the Tartar race.
   b. Tatars of Ufa and of Orenburg.
   c. Bashkirs, mixed with the ancient Bulgarians and Finns; in the government of Orenburg.

d. Meshtchériaks, ditto, ditto.
e. Karakalpaks, on the north of lake Aral.

10. Kirguis, or Kirguis-Kaïsaks, in their steppes, in Turkestan, Khiwa, &c.

11. Siberian Tatars; remains of the Tatar inhabitants of the Khanat of Sibir or of Tura.
    a. Turalinzes, on the Tura.
    b. Tatars of Tobolsk.
    c. Tatars of Tara.
    d. Tatars of Tomsk.
    e. Barabintzes, in the steppe of Baraba.

III. Tatars mixed with Mongols.

12. Tatars of Krasnoiarsk and of Kutznesk, with the Soyetes. (See the account of Siberia, Book XLIX.)
13. Katchinzes, ibid.
14. Tatars of Tchulym, on the river of that name.
15. Telecotes, or white Kalmuks, with the Abinzes, Beltires, and Biriusses, on the Upper Yenisei.
16. Yakootes, on the Lena.

II. MONGOLIAN RACE.

I. Mongols.
Kalkas, on the north of the Desert of Cobi.
Ortosh, on the north side of the Great Wall.
Tumet, on the north-east of Pekin.
Nayman, ditto, ibid.
Kartchines, ibid. near Taitchacar in Mantchooria.
Tchahary, north from Pekin, at a distance of 100 and 400 miles.
Karlocas, ibid. 850 miles.
Sonjoot, &c. See the Day-syn-i-tundshi.

II. Kalmuks or Derben Oeroet (Eleuths.)
1. Choschotes, near Lake Hoho-Nor and in Thibet. The Sifans of the Chinese.
    a. Yellow Sifans.
    b. Black Sifans.
2. Songarians, more particularly called Eleuths.
3. Derbetes, joined to the Songarians and Torgots.
4. Torgots, who emigrated from the Kalmuk country to Russia, and afterwards returned.

N.B. Among the Kalmuks perhaps there are some other tribes, remains of the Oïgoors in the Cantons of Hamil, Turfat, &c.

III. Boorialts, in the neighbourhood of Lake Baïkal.

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III. MANTCHOO, OR TONGOOS RACE.

I. Mantchoos Proper.
  1. The Nieutché, or Mantchoos of Ningoota, (the Bogdoitchi of the old Russian authors.)
    a. The Atchari.
    b. The Mohho, &c.
  2. The Leao, or Kitans, ancient nation of Leaotong (?)
  3. Daoorians, or Tagurians.
    a. Solons, near Mount Sioïki.
    b. Humari, on the Amoor or Seghalien, above its junction with the Songari-Oola.
  4. The Dutchery, on the Amoor, above the Humari, removed into the interior by the Chinese government.
  5. Mantchoo Fishers, or the Yu-pitatse of the Chinese.
    a. Natki, or Fiatta.
    b. Ghiliaiky, or Ketching, (doubtful origin.)
    c. Orotchys, on the Bay de Castries.
    d. Bitchy's, more to the south.
    e. Mantchoos settled in the north part of Seghalien island.

II. Tongoos, or Œvœns.
  1. Tongoos hunters, in the north, on the rivers Toongoosska.
  2. Tongoos, whose employment consists in keeping droves of reindeer, in the south near the Baïkal, &c.
  3. Tongoos Fishers, or Lamutes, to the east of the former.

  N.B. These are only vague subdivisions. There are seven or eight dialects which are little known. The Tongoos are called by the Chinese, She-Goei and Solons; by the Yookaghires, Erpeghi. The names which they give themselves are Œvœns and Donki.

IV. SAMOID RACE.

I. Samoids Proper. From Petchora in Europe to the east of the Yeniseï.
  1. Petchorians or Ingorians, on the east side of the Petchora.
  2. Obdorians or Objoodirs, on the Obi.
  3. Tchijoodirs, ibid.
  4. Guarizi, at Waigatz Straits.
  5. Tissowski, (Russian name,) on the Tass.
  6. Yuraks, east from the preceding.
  7. Turukhanskoi, (Russian name,) near the mouth of the Yeniseï.

II. Ostiaks of Narym and of Tomsk.

III. Hordes of the Upper Yeniseï.
1. Kamatchinzes, on the Kam.
2. Taragams and Taiginzes, on the Taasowa.
3. Tubinski, on the Tuba, scattered.
4. Koibales, neighbourhood of Kutznesk and Krasnoiarsk.
5. Matores or Madores, on the Tuba.
6. Soyètes, among the Sayanian Mountains.

N.B. These Hordes seem to be the primitive stock of the Samoids.

V. FINNISH RACE, OR MIXED WITH FINNS.

I. Wogools,
II. Permiaks,
III. Ostiaks of the Obi, &c.

} See the Table of the Finnish Tribes in the Geography of Europe.

VI. OBSCURE EASTERN RACES.

I. Ostiaks of the Yeniseï.
1. Ostiaks of Pampokol.
2. Arinzes, the District of Krasnoiarsk.
3. Kotowzes, on the Kan.
4. Asanes, on the Ussolka, scattered.

II. Yookaghirs, mouth of the Lena; they call themselves Audon Domni, and are called Yedel by the Koriaks.

III. Tchooktches or Tchukotchis.
1. Tchukotchis, in the east.
2. Shelagi, in the north.
3. Achuchalat islanders, &c.

IV. Koriaïks.
1. Tchantshu, on the Gulf of Penjina.
2. Tumuhutu, nomades.
3. Elutetat or Olutorzi, on the Olutora.

V. Kamtchatdales, who call themselves Itelmen.

VI. Kurilians, called in their own language Aïno, and Mo-Sin in the Japanese Histories. Inhabitants of the Great Kuriles, of Iesso, and Seghalien Islands. (See Book XLI.)

VII. Coreans, &c. &c.

BOOK XLI.

JAPANESE ISLANDS.

Japan; the Islands of Iesso; the Kurile, and Loo-Choo Islands. Critical Inquiries on Iesso.

BOOK XLI.

Sea of Japan.

To the east of Mantchooria lies the basin of the sea of Japan, the north end of which has been named by La Perouse the Channel of Tartary. Steep shores, destitute of large rivers, surround this dark, foggy, and tempestuous mediterranean. On the north it communicates by two straits with the sea of Okhotsk. One of them, near the mouth of the river Amoor, separating the continent from Seghalien Island, is choaked up with sand covered with reeds, and does not admit the passage even of a small boat. La Perouse's Strait, known formerly under the name of the strait of Tessoï, affords, on the east, a passage into the sea of Iesso, a part of the sea of Okhotsk. The strait of Songaar forms a communication between the sea of Japan and the great Eastern Ocean, or rather what is called the Northern Pacific. On the south, the strait of Corea opens into the Chinese seas. A chain of considerable islands forms the barrier by which the Japanese mediterranean is separated from the Great Ocean; and this chain, which is more than sixteen hundred miles long, is connected again with the Kurile Islands on the north-east and with those of Loo-Choo on the south. The islands of the Japanese empire are the most extensive.

In the north of the Japanese empire, two great islands form, with a number of small ones, an independent archipelago. It is here that geographical criticism amused itself with sketching the famous country of Iesso. At first it was believed that this country, known by its connection with Japan, was a continent or a large island between Asia and America; then it was confounded with Kamtchatka, or rather was joined with the country then called Russian Tartary, for Kamtchatka was not known till 1696.

Critical researches on Iesso.

At last, the voyage of the Dutch navigator de Vries, commanding the ship Castricom, threw the first ray of light on this part of the world. It was found to a certainty that these lands were as much separated from the continent of Asia on the north-east as from Japan on the south. But three points continued doubtful. The land seen by de Vries presented one well marked island, the States Island: but to the east, the extent of the Company's Land was vaguely understood. Some accounts of little authenticity, and among others that of Jean de Gama, gave rise to the idea that this land extended to America. On the other hand, the Castricom having coasted the land of Matsumai or Iesso on the east and north-east, was repelled from the strait of Tessoï by the currents. The fogs prevented her even from seeing it; and when she touched on the southern and eastern coast of Seghalien Island, it was considered as forming a continuation of Iesso. Some geographers might thus have believed that all these coasts, instead of forming two islands, belonged to the same peninsula of Chinese Tartary. The log-book of the Dutch vessel the Breske not having been consulted, it was not known that the navigators belonging to that ship had determined the strait of Songaar to be such as we now know it.* The north point of Japan being placed two or three degrees too far south, creat-

Voyage of the Castricom and the Breske.

* Witsen, Noord-en-Ost-Tartarye, 2d edit. p. 138.

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ed an immense gap between that country and Iesso, where the Japanese charts laid down a very narrow arm of the sea.* About the same time, some particulars were known through the Chinese missionaries respecting the island of Seghalien, and the existence of a strait called Tessoï. The Jesuit Father Des Anges even saw this strait, described its terrible currents, and learned that the land beyond it, the island of Seghalien, was named Aïno-Moxori. This name signifies the isle of the Aïnos;† the last word being the name which the inhabitants of Iesso and the Kurile islands gave themselves, although in 1620 this name had no meaning among geographers, and they could draw from it no conclusion. D'Anville made two attempts to delineate these countries, and by a chance not uncommon in geographical criticism, his last idea was the most remote from the truth. He gave the strait of Tessoï its proper place, but he connected the south part of the island of Seghalien or Aïno-Moxori with the continent of Mantchooria; then called Chinese-Tartary, and figured this same island, under very small dimensions, opposite to the mouth of the river Amoor.‡

Discovery of the strait of Tessoï.

Hypotheses of d'Anville.

The Russians, in visiting the Kurile islands adjoining their possession of Kamtchatka, necessarily arrived at Iesso. the Cossack Kosirewski reached, in 1713, the isle of Koonasheer, making part of the coasts of the Iesso of the Dutch. In 1736, Spangenberg, a Dane in the Russian service, examined the isles of *Ooroop* or the Company's Land, that of *Atorkoo*, which is States Island; also Koonasheer, Tchikotan, and Matsúmai or Iesso. He even made Japan, but he had neither ships nor instruments corresponding to his talents and his courage. At last the Russian Potouchkew, in 1777, sailed by the west, round the islands of

Voyage of Spangenberg, &c.

* Kæmpfer on Japan, I. 78. (Dohm's German edition.)

† Vocabulary of the Iesso language in MS. communicated by M. Titsingh.

‡ D'Anville, Carte générale de la Tartarie Chinoise et Carte de l'Asie, II part.—Ph. Buache, Consid. géog. et phys. sur les Découv. p. 75, &c.

Atorkoo and Oooroop. These discoveries were placed too far to the south,* from the respect paid to geographical systems on the position of Songaar. Two bad sketches of these discoveries, taken from the Russian records and published by M. Lesseps, completed the mass of confusion and fruitless conjecture in which the subject was involved.

Voyage of La Perouse.

At last the unfortunate La Perouse commenced the discovery by the true method. He entered from the Sea of Japan, found the channel which separates Mantchooria from the countries of Iesso, penetrated to the sandy shallow strait which separates these countries from the continent, crossed another strait to which his name has since been properly given, and thus obtained for us a view of this archipelago altogether new.

Broughton's voyage.

The English navigator Broughton has confirmed the correctness of the Dutch charts and of those of Kæmpfer, with regard to the strait of Songaar or Matsumai. In consequence of the investigations of this gentleman, the northern coast of Japan has obtained its right position of latitude. But Broughton has given geographers a new subject of dispute, by maintaining that there is no strait between Mantchooria and Seghalien island.

Descriptions of the Strait of Seghalien.

La Perouse, forced by winds and other circumstances to leave this channel before he had explored it to the end, had interrogated with much care the natives both of the island and of the continent. The former assured him that their country was surrounded with water, and gave him a sketch of the strait which separated it from the continent.† The people of the continent told him that the boats which came from the mouth of the river Amoor to the bay of De Castries were dragged over a narrow isthmus of sandy ground covered with sea weeds.‡ This navigator remarked, besides, that the depth of the water rapidly decreased at

* Cartes des Découvertes Russes, publiées à Petersbourg en 1773 et 1787.

† La Perouse, III. p. 36. ‡ Idem, p. 72.

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the extremity of the channel, and that no current was perceivable in it. He seems to have been satisfied that the strait existed, but that, obstructed by sand and sea weeds, it only afforded a narrow passage to small boats. Broughton goes farther. He says that having been twenty-two miles farther to the north than La Perouse, he arrived at a bay which was only two fathoms deep, and which was shut in on all sides by low and sandy ground. He is persuaded that this tongue of land, which was examined by his boats, is in no part interrrupted, and that Seghalien is a peninsula. Mr. Krusenstern, who did not go near this strait, but visited that which is situated to the north of the mouth of the river Seghalien, supports the opinion of Broughton by extended reasonings.* The water which he found in the gulf formed by this river being almost fresh, furnished a specious argument, which appeared decisive to him and his companions. If the Gulf of Seghalien communicated ever so little with the channel of Tartary, the salt waters of that arm of the sea would have mingled with those of the gulf. M. de Krusenstern supports his views by the testimony of the inhabitants of De Castries Bay quoted by La Perouse, and by the acknowledgment of Broughton, and says he entertains no doubt of the existence of a sandy isthmus rendering the land of Seghalien a peninsula; but he thinks that this is of very recent formation, and that Seghalien was really to be considered as an island at the time when even the modern Japanese and Chinese charts were constructed, all of which represent it as detached from the continent.

Reply to these reasonings.

It is to be regretted that nautical and political considerations prevented Krusenstern from substantiating on the spot the existence of this isthmus. His reasonings as they stand are not unanswerable. Two or three windings of the beach; some islets, and sand-banks; two or three narrow canals

* Krusenstern's Voyage round the World. II. p. 191—195. (original German editior.

filled with the enormous rushes which grow over the whole of this coast, encumbered also with floating meadows of marine plants, would afford a sufficient explanation of the fact that the salt water of the channel of Tartary did not extend to the Gulf of Seghalien. If to the west of this shallow strait there is a tongue of low land almost divided by two small rivers, as there certainly is one to the north of the mouth of the Amoor at the place which the Russians call Gilazkaia Perewoloca, and the Chinese *Gole*,* it is quite natural to suppose that the people of the continent have sometimes dragged their light boats over such a stripe of land, to avoid the difficult navigation of the strait itself. This is what the Cossacks of the seventeenth century did, when coming down the Amoor, and wishing to reach Udskoi, they preferred carrying their boats over the tongue of land Gilazkaia to the plan of doubling the promontory which M. Krusenstern calls Cape Romberg. According to this hypothesis, which is singularly favoured by the very remarkable details of a map of M. d'Anville's,† we may conceive how Broughton may have been deceived in mistaking a promontory in the strait for an isthmus. Besides, if this navigator found a sandy isthmus, even supposing it to have been of considerable width, why did he not perceive the sea on its opposite side?

Conclusion

For these reasons, till such time as new light is thrown on the question, every candid geographer will probably retain the strait pointed out by d'Anville, by the missionaries, and by the Chinese and Japanese charts, as separating Seghalien, or Tchoka as it is also called, from the continent of Mantchooria.

Krusenstern examined with great care the western shores of the isle of Iesso, and the south-eastern and northern shores of Seghalien Island. His account, and those of La Perouse and Broughton, are the only published sources from which

* Muller's Memoir on the river Amoor, in Busching's Mag. Geog. II. 507, 508.

† Asie, IIIe. part. 2^e feuille.

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certain ideas can be formed of this archipelago; but the kindness of M. Tissingh, a Dutch gentleman who resided a long time at Japan, enables us to avail ourselves of two Japanese descriptions for details which throw a new light on the geography and history of these countries. One is called "*Ieso-Ki*, or a description of Iesso, by Arai-Tsikogo-no-Kami, instructor of Ziogoen (military emperor) Tsoena-Josi," written in 1720. The other is called "Ieso-Ki, with the history of the rebellion of Samsayla, by Kannamon, Japanese interpreter," written in 1752. Besides these, M. Tissingh has communicated an account of two Japanese maps, which will appear in our periodical work the "Annales des Voyages." We shall take the northern coast of Japan for our point of departure.

M. Tissingh's manuscripts.

Isle of Matsumai, or Iesso Proper.

The isle of MATSUMAI, situated to the north of that of Niphon, is called in the Japanese language Iesso, or "the Coast;" it also receives the name of Mo-Sin, or "the Hairy Bodies." The Mo-Sins formerly occupied the northern parts of Japan, as far as the mountain Ojama. Driven back into their own island, they have there been repeatedly subdued; and it is only in the south part of the island of Seghalien that they preserve their independence. According to Krusenstern the Mo-Sins call themselves Aïnos.* This nation is distinguished from the Japanese by a stature somewhat taller, and a more robust frame. They have large very thick black beards, and the hair of their heads is black and somewhat frizzled. Both the men and women tattoo their faces above the lips with figures of flowers and animals. The rich among them dress in Japanese or Chinese manufactures; the common people wear a stuff made of a fibre obtained from a species of willow bark. At the early age of ten the children learn to dive into the sea, and to leap over tight ropes. The Aïnoos excel in both exercises. Some of them can leap six or seven feet high. They hunt the deer; their principal arms are the bow and

The Mo-Sins, or Aïnoos.

Exercises.

* Krusenstern's Voyage, II. p. 74.

arrows. Small detachments of Japanese can beat thousands of the Aïnos. The hereditary chiefs of the villages acknowledge themselves the vassals of the Japanese prince of Matsumai, and pay him a tribute of otters' skins, or the skins of seals, bears, elks, beavers, likewise of salmon, falcons, and other productions of their country. They live together without established laws, and almost without religious worship; at least a few libations and the lighting of fires in honour of Kamoï, a Japanese deity, are the only acts of religion that have been observed among them. They have no alphabet, and no coin. They trade entirely by barter. They repair to one of the Kurile islands, lay down their goods on the beach, and return on board their vessels: the Kurilians come down, examine the goods, and place their own by the side of them; and by a series of such negociations in dumb shew their bargains are concluded. They allow polygamy; adultery they resent and revenge. If an attempt is made by a married woman to seduce a man, he demands her earrings, and, with these pledges in his hand, he is safe from the attacks of the injured husband. Brothers marry their sisters. Their tribes are so many separate family associations, which seldom form mutual alliances. Their lamentations for the dead are expressed by mock fights among the relations, in which bloody wounds are sometimes inflicted. To these curious accounts given by the Japanese writers very little has been added by European navigators. Broughton informs us that these people are uncommonly hairy over the whole body. This Krusenstern, trusting to the Dutch testimonies, considers as an exaggeration; and the same view appears to be confirmed by the Japanese accounts.

Dumb bargains.

The language of the Aïnos seems to be equally foreign to the Japanese, the Mantchoo, and the Kamtchatdale. On comparing about a hundred words with the corresponding terms in several of the languages of Asia, and the large adjoining islands, we can find no indication of affinity; but a more intimate acquaintance with the structure and the

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roots of many of these languages would be requisite to enable us to pronounce with any decision on the question. This language, though less sonorous and less mellow than the Japanese, has no savage rudeness in its articulation.

The following are a few specimens of it:

Heaven,	*likita.*	Night,	*atziroo.*
Earth,	*sirikata.*	Man,	*okkiy.*
Sun,	*tofskaf.*	(In Japanese	*otoko.*)
Moon,	*koonetsoo.*	Woman,	*mennokoosi.*
Stars,	*noro.*	Father,	*faspé*
Mountain,	*kimla.*	Mother,	*tafoo.*
Island,	*modjiri.*	(In Japanese	*faſa.*)
Shore,	*siri.*	Fire,	*abé.*
Day,	*tokaf.*		

Physical description of Iesso.

The isle of Iesso presents on all sides lofty mountains covered with a beautiful verdure. The name In-soo, given to the island, according to Broughton expresses this circumstance; the first syllable signifying *high*, and the second *green*. It abounds with pines, willows, and many other trees. Tussilagos and the Kamtchatkan lily thrive in it, showing that the climate is moist and cold. There are several creeping plants. The reeds have the same enormous size as at the mouths of the river Amoor. Among the cultivated vegetable species of which trials have been made by the Japanese, millet, pease, and beans have succeeded. The animals of the island are eagles, three sorts of falcons, bears, and deer. They take the bears when very young, give them to their women to suckle, bring them up like favourite dogs or pigs, and, when grown up, confine them in cages till fat enough for killing. The family mourn over the death, yet eat the body of the animal; a custom which reminds us of the Ostiaks.* The whales come to the bays and river mouths in quest of the immense swarms of *nising*, a kind of sprats which are found there. Salmon also abounds to such a degree that they may be taken with the hand. The sea-leech is caught and sold to the Japanese. Several of the fuci are used as common articles of food.

Tame bears.

* See Book XXXVII. p. 426.

Matsumai, or "the Town of the Strait," (Matsi being the word for a strait,) is built near the south end of the island. It is a Japanese fortress, and inaccessible by land. The other military posts extend along the west all the way to the northern point. In coasting the western shore we meet with the islands of Osima, Kosima, Okosiri, Riosiri, (which contains the Pic de Langle of La Perouse*,) and Refoonsiri. The large gulf which extends into the country, is called by the Russians the Gulf of Strogonof. The last station on the north side is Notsjiab, the Notzamboo of Krusenstern.† Soyea is on a bay farther to the east. On the north-west coast the Aïnos, though subject to Japan, live by themselves. Atkis, their principal village, is on the north-east coast. A Russian officer, Mr. Laxmann, visited in 1792 the harbour of Kimoro, which belongs to it.‡ Mr. Tissingh's manuscripts contain no such name as this last; but Atkis is indicated under that of Atskesi. A firth or strait which has received no name separates the isle of Iesso from that of Chicotan, one of the Kurile islands, claimed by the Japanese. The south-east coast has been surveyed by the Dutch and by Broughton. The country is covered with magnificent forests. Volcano Bay is a circular basin of a very picturesque appearance. There is every reason to suspect the existence of a volcano in a state of activity in this quarter, although it has not been positively ascertained. The Japanese divide this island into six districts, but we are unacquainted with their respective limits.

Towns and remarkable places.

Different islands.

Volcano Bay.

To the north of island of Matsumai, the long island of Seghalien extends, called by the Japanese Oku Iesso, or the upper Iesso, sometimes Kita Iesso, which means either northern Yesso, or the Yesso of Kitay, (China.) The Aïnos, according to our Japanese geographers, call it Karato, to which name the Japanese add the termination *si-*

Seghalien Island or Oku Iesso.

* Krusenstern's Voyage, II. 56. † Idem. II. 50.

‡ Storch's Russia under Alexander I. fascic. 6. (in German.)

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ma, signifying island. According to Krusenstern, the name given to it by the natives is Saldan; according to La Perouse, Tchoka; but the latter appears to be only the name of a leading village, which is written Tchushin on M. d'Anville's map. The other two names may probably also turn out to be local.

Different names.

Description of the inhabitants.

La Perouse, who visited the west coast, gives a very favourable account of this people, taken in a moral point of view. The intelligence of these poor islanders struggles against a severe climate. They live by fishing and hunting. They tattoo their persons, and, like the Aïnos of Iesso, they make stuffs of the willow bark. Their language contains some German and some Mantchoo terms. A boat in their language is *kahani*, in German *kahn*. The word *ship* has exactly the same meaning with them as in English. So has the word *two*, as pronounced by the English. At Iesso *tsootsoob* is the word for the *number* two. This island, very high in the middle, becomes flat towards the south end, where it seems to have an arable soil. Vegetation is extremely vigorous. Pines, willows, oaks, and birches, are the principal forest trees. The surrounding sea is full of fish. The rivers and streams abound in salmon and trout of the best quality. The hills are covered with rose trees, with angelica, and Kamtchatkan lilies.*

Physical description of the country.

Remarkable localities.

Krusenstern examined Aniwa bay at the south end of the island. Here the Japanese had an establishment, which the Russians have destroyed; and it is supposed that the latter nation mean to colonize it. The whole eastern coast, examined by the same navigator, presented woody valleys, behind which mountains covered with snow seemed to lose themselves in the clouds.† At the 51*st* degree of latitude the ground becomes low, and nothing is to be seen except sandy downs and hills.‡ The south part is inhabited by the Aïnos. The east coast seems to be

* Voyage de M. La Perouse, IV. p. 73. III. 40, 43.

† Krusenstern, II. p. 92, 96, 144.

‡ Idem, p. 153.

an uninhabited desert; the north-west, near the mouth of the river Amoor, is occupied by a colony of Mantchoos.

KURILE ISLANDS.

On the north-east of the isle of Iesso a chain of islands extends all the way to the south point of Kamtchatka. The Russians call them the KURILES. They reckon twenty-two of them, including Iesso. The inhabitants of this last isle reckon thirty-six, which they comprehend under the name of Kooroo-Misi, which is probably of Japanese etymology, and signifies the "Road of Sea-weeds;" *kooroo* signifying a species of fucus, and *mitsi* a road. The charts in Krusenstern's voyage lay down only twenty-six; the others will be discovered when the eastern shore of Iesoo is better explored. D'Anville lays down twenty-nine to the north of the Boussole channel, and thirty-four in all. This archipelago is naturally divided into two parts, the chain on the south of the Boussole channel, and that on the north. The one which is nearest Iesso, and is claimed by the Japanese government, may be called the Great Kurile; and the other, adjoining to Kamtchatka, the Little Kuriles.

The Little Kuriles.

The latter, inhabited by Kamtchatdales who left their native country on the approach of the Russians, present nothing but a chain of precipitous barren rocks, which are mostly volcanic. Poromu-Shir* is the largest. Sumtchu shews some indications of silver mines. Ana-Kutan, Arama-Kutan, Syas-Kutan,† and several others, contain extinguished volcanoes. That of Rashotka, called Sarytchew Peak by Krusenstern, has a volcano always burning, and also Ikarma. In Usi-Shir there are warm springs issuing with violent jets.

The Great Kuriles.

The Great Kuriles promise more considerable advantages to intelligent colonists. That of Ooroop, the "Company's Island" of the Dutch, the Nadeshda of some Russian maps, and the Ooroowoo of the Japanese manuscript

* *Shir* is the term for an island in the language of Iesso.

† Kutan is from *Kotang*, the Iessoic term for a country.

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Ieso-Ki, has pines and cherry trees. Here begin the bearded Kurilians of the race of the Aïnos of Iesso and Seghalien. Etorpoo, the "States Island" of the Dutch, and the Atorkoo of Krusenstern's map, contains fine forests, which, however, are at times seriously threatened by an adjoining volcano in the same island. The plains and mountains of Koona-Shir are covered with the most beautiful larches and pines. The *Pinus cembra* thrives in it. It was probably at Chicotan that Steller and Spangenberg believed they saw vines, and even the wild citron of Japan. These navigators certainly did not find the oak and the walnut except on the coast of Iesso.

Beniowski's discoveries.

It is among the Great Kuriles that we are to look for a part of the alleged discoveries of Beniowski.* This enthusiast imagined that he saw at Koonasheer considerable towns. There was a pearl fishery on its coast. His Tchulgan-Idzon island, rich in copper, and Maanas-Idzon, abounding in gold, are no more to be found. But the Japanese geographers point out in the isle of Iesso a district called Figasi, and a village called Kawa, which are evidently the isles of Fiassi and Kawith of the Polish navigator. His accounts of silver and copper mines, horses, red pearl or coral, which he found in these countries, contain nothing incredible. In giving the town of Matza 2000 houses he probably exaggerates; but the town exists, and is called Matzige†. It is on the whole rather rashly that this navigator has been charged with intentional imposture.

EMPIRE OF JAPAN

We now proceed to describe a country more frequently treated in detail than those we have just examined. The three islands of Niphon, Kiusiu, and Sikokf, surrounded with a multitude of smaller islands, form the kingdom, or as it is sometimes called, the EMPIRE OF JAPAN. The Chinese at first called it Yang-hoo, or the "Workshop of the Sun;" then they called it Noo-Kooé, or "the Kingdom

Different names.

* See his Voyage translated by Forster, I. 368.

† Manuscript Chart of Tistingh.

of Slaves;" and finally, Je-pen, or Jepoon, "Country of the Rising Sun*," Marco Polo knew it under the corrupted name of Xipangu. The isle of Kiusiu has from north to south a diameter of nearly two degrees, or 130 miles, and its greatest length is about 220. That of Sikokf is 100 miles long, and 55 broad. The large island of Niphon lies south-west and north-east; its length is not less than 1600 miles long, but its breath is in every part moderate. In the middle it is not more than 160 miles, though in two places between that and the two ends it may be the double of this. The surface of the Japanese states may be reckoned at 122,720 square miles. The population is rated at between 15 and 20 millions by the most moderate authors. This regular and flourishing state, at the further extremity of Asia, is withdrawn from the researches of travellers by the cautiousness of its policy.

Mountains.

The whole country is full of mountains and hills, and its coasts beset with steep rocks, which are opposed to the waves of a stormy ocean. The plains are pervaded by numerous rivers and small streams. But the hills, the mountains, and the plains, enriched with many singular plants, present the interesting picture of human industry amidst the traces of the revolutions of nature. The most celebrated mountain of Japan is that of Foosi, which is covered with snow through the whole year. In the neighbourhood the mountains of Faconi surround a small lake of the same name.† Some of these mountains contain volcanoes. The greater part of them abound in evergreen trees and limpid springs. It is said that there is near Firando an island entirely volcanic; and several others of the same kind are mentioned in the surrounding seas.‡ In the province of Figo there is a volcano which gives out many flames.

Volcanoes.

Rivers.

The rivers of Japan cannot have a long course. The Jedo-Gawa, which passes by Osaka, has several bridges of

* Kæmpfer's History of Japan, I. 73, 74 (German edition.)

† Thunberg, t. III. p. 164, (Langlès's translation.)

‡ Kæmpfer, t. I. 166, (French translation.)

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cedar from 300 to 360 feet long. The Ojin-gawa* and the Fusi-gawa are also broad and rapid rivers. In the Japanese history the river Oomi is mentioned as having in one night issued out of the earth.

Lakes.

One of the largest lakes is that Oitz, from which two rivers proceed, one towards Miaco, and the other to Osaka. This lake is fifty Japanese leagues long, each league being as much as a horse goes in an hour at an ordinary pace; its breath about a third. The delightful plain which surrounds it is rendered sacred by containing 3000 pagodas.

Climate and seasons.

These islands experience by turns the extremes of heat and cold. The summer heat, however, is frequently alleviated by the sea breezes. In winter the north and north-west winds are exceedingly sharp, and bring along with them an intense frost. During the whole year the weather is variable, and much rain falls, particularly in the *satsaki* or rainy month, which begins at midsummer.† According to observations, the highest degree of heat at Nagasaki is 98° in the month of August, and the greatest cold 35° in January. The snow lies some days on the ground even in the southern parts. Thunder is heard almost every night in summer; storms, hurricanes, and earthquakes are very frequent. The genial rains conspire with human labour and manure to overcome the natural sterility of the soil.

Agriculture.

The laws enjoin agriculture as one of the rigorous duties of the Japanese. Every spot is under cultivation, with the exception of the most impracticable mountains. Exempt from all feudal and ecclesiastical exactions, the farmer cultivates the land with zeal and success.‡ There are no commons. If a piece of land lies without culture, a neighbouring farmer who is more active is at liberty to take possession of it. There are no grass meadows; but the attention paid to manure is very great. On the sides of steep hills stone walls are raised which sustain plots of

* The word *gawa* signifies river, as it does in Celtic.

† Thunberg, t. III. p. 234.

‡ Idem, t. IV. p. 80, &c.

ground sown with rice or with pulse. Rice is the principal grain. Buckwheat, rye, barley, and wheat, are rarely produced;* potatoes are of indifferent quality; but various sorts of beans, pease, turnips, and cabbage succeed well. The rice is sown in April, and reaped in November. In this last month wheat is sown to be cropped in the following June. Barley also lies in the ground during winter.

Vegetables.

The plants of Japan very much resemble those of China, which is probably owing to a mutual interchange of the most useful species. The tea shrub grows without culture in the hedges. The most superb bamboos abound in all the low grounds; ginger, black pepper, sugar, cotton, and indigo, though perhaps originally from the southern parts of Asia, are cultivated in Japan with great success and in large quantity. In the interior the sides of the secondary mountains produce the Indian and the camphor laurel; likewise the *Rhus vernix*, the bark of which yields a gum resin which is regarded as the leading ingredient of the inimitable black Indian varnish. Besides the sweet China orange, there is a wild species peculiar to Japan, the fruit of the *Citrus Japonica*. The European vegetation is mingled with that of southern Asia. The larch, the cypress, and the weeping willow, which make their appearance in all the temperate countries between Japan and the Mediterranean, terminate here. The case is similar with the *Papaver somniferum*, or opium-bearing poppy, the *Convolvulus Jalappa*, and lilac.

Forest trees.

Fruit trees.

The Japanese have none of our apples, but they have pears of considerable size; Siam oranges, Kaki figs, or Japanese date-plums, *(Diospyros kaki,)* and large common oranges. They have the art of making sweet-meats, and preserving a variety of fruits, such as strawberries and cocoa-nuts, with the assistance of banana spice. They procure oil for cookery as well as for light from sesamum, from the sumachs, from the *Taxus gingko*, from the *Laurus camphora*, the *Laurus glauca*, the *Melia azedarach* or common

* Kæmpfer, I. 120, &c. (in German.)

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bead tree, and the coaco-nut. They raise a great abundance of silk worms. The cotton tree furnishes them with a light napery, and the *Urtica nivea* with durable cordage; they make paper and fans of the bark of a species of mulberry, of the *Licual*, and the *Borassus flabelliformis*; bottles of the calabash, combs of the *Myrica nagi*, and all sorts of furniture of *Lindera*, different species of pine, box-wood, cypress, and the *Taxus macrophylla*, or long-leaved yew. The eye is delighted with the mixture of cocoa trees, fan-leaved palms, cycas, and arborescent *mimosas*, which adorn the sea beach. The hedges by which the possessions are divided are composed of *Lycium Japonicum*, three-leaved oranges, *Gardenias*, *Viburnums*, and *Thuyas*, besides several twining plants of which they make arbours and covered walks. Several plants useful in medicine are also found here, such as the *Convallaria Japonica*, *Acorus aromaticus*, *Smilax China*, in the virtues of which they were instructed by the Swedish traveller Thunberg; the *Corchorus Japonicus*, the *Laurus camphora*, the *moxa serpentaria*, and mungo root.

Domestic animals.

The maxims of Japanese industry have almost banished from the empire two domestic animals, which in all other countries are the most common, goats and sheep. The first are deemed hurtful to agriculture, and the wool of the second is superseded by cotton and silk; pigs are also proscribed as pernicious to agriculture. The neighbourhood of Nangasaki is the only place where any are to be seen, and they have probably been introduced by the Chinese.* The islands produce on the whole but few quadrupeds. In Thunberg's opinion, one province of Sweden contained as many or more horses than the whole empire of Japan; there are very few cattle; a variety of the buffalo, with a hump on the back, is employed in agriculture, and very small oxen; yet the caprice or personal taste of the sovereign has created a law of the state in fa-

* Thunberg, IV. p. 95.

vour of dogs, which are fed at the expense of the towns, and are treated with much kindness and respect. The principal food of the Japanese consists of fish and vegetables. Fowls and ducks are kept chiefly for the sake of their eggs; to these are added many sorts of marine plants, *Fuci* and *Ulvæ*, which are made ready in different ways. Game is not plenty; there are wild geese, pheasants and partridges, but very few wild quadrupeds. The bear met with in the northern parts is black, with two white blotches of a crescent form on the shoulders; the flesh, which is eaten, is compared to mutton, but is tougher. The wolf is sometimes seen in the northern provinces; there are also some foxes; the latter are held in universal detestation, and considered as evil spirits clothed with an animal body.

Food of the Japanese.

Wild animals.

The precious metals, gold and silver, abound in the empire of Japan. This was well known at one time to the Portuguese, and afterwards to the Dutch, who exported considerable cargoes. Gold is found almost every where; but, in order to keep up its value by scarcity, there is a prohibition against digging beyond a determinate depth; and no mine can be opened or worked without the express permission of the emperor, who claims two-thirds of the produce, leaving a third to the proprietor of the land. Gold is found in small quantities in the sand, but the greater part of it is extracted from copper pyrites. The purest and richest mines are at Sado, in the largest of the small islands adjoining Niphon; those of Suremga hold the next rank. Silver seems to have been at one time more abundant; the Japanese consider it as rarer than gold, though here, as every where else, it is of inferior value in exchange. It is said that there are rich silver mines in the province of Bungo, and the most northerly parts near Kattami; but the two islands called the Gold and Silver Islands (*Ginsima*, and *Kinsima*,) are probably fabulous creations of national vanity, unless we should suppose them to be indications of some ancient commercial connection with Mexico, or

Metals.

Gold Mines.

Islands of Gold and Silver.

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imitations of the tales of Ptolemy on the *regio aurea et regio argentea.*

Copper Mines.

Copper, mixed largely with gold, forms the chief wealth of several provinces, and the most valuable of their exports. The finest and most malleable comes from Saruga, Astinga, Kiso and Kuni; the last is considered as the most malleable; that of Saruga contains the largest proportion of gold. There is a great number of copper mines also in Satsuma. Iron seems to be rarer in this country than any other metal; but it is found in the provinces of Mimasalla, Bitsju and Bisen; the Japanese do not make so much use of it as most other nations; they sometimes employ it in the manufacture of arms, of knives, scissars, and other necessary instruments. The gold and copper are coined into money.

Of Iron.

Minerals.

Mr. Thunberg received some amber in a present, brown, yellow, and iridescent, which was said to have been found in the country; sulphur is found in great abundance,* and pumice-stone, shewing the former existence of volcanoes. We are informed that mineral coal is found in the northern provinces; there are red agates with white veins, which are used for making buttons and snuff-boxes.† According to Kæmpfer, calamine is imported from Tonquin, but tin is found in the province of Bungo; perhaps this pretended tin is only the white copper of China. A reddish-coloured naphtha is employed for burning. Thunberg saw asbestos, porcelain-earth, and white marble.‡ Sulphuret of mercury in its primitive crystalline form, and in lamellated masses, has been brought from Japan. Baron Wurmb, a German *servant*, settled at Batavia, received from Japan, asbestos, capillary schorl, hydrophane, and the atmospheric stones formerly called thunderstones, denominated in Japan *ka-*

* Thunberg, t. IV. p. 402.

† Kæmpfer. I. p. 121, 122,(in German.)

‡ Thunberg, III. p. 203.

*minary sakki.** There are several warm mineral springs, to which the inhabitants resort for various diseases.†

The empire is divided into about sixty-two principalities, ruled by chiefs, who are vassals of the emperor or *Kubo*.

Towns. The capital of the empire of Japan is called Iedo, and is situated in a bay on the east coast of Niphon. The houses are only one or two stories high, with shops in front. The harbour of this place is so shallow that a European vessel is obliged to anchor thirteen or fourteen miles off from the shore. The Emperor's palace is surrounded with stone walls, and ditches with drawbridges. It would form of itself a considerable town, being about fifteen miles round,‡ while the whole city is nearly sixty.§ It is the residence of all the feudatory princes for one half of the year. Their families, or part of them, are always kept there as a sort of hostages for their fidelity. The palace consists of a great number of apartments, and occupies an immense space. The hall of a hundred mats is 600 feet long and 300 wide. The palace has a square tower, which is peculiarly sacred, as representing royal strength and security. None of the grandees are allowed to enter it; and each one of them enjoys a similar prerogative in his own territory. The roofs are adorned with gilt dragons; the columns and ceilings exhibit an elegant display of cedar, camphor-wood, and other valuable kinds of timber; but the whole furniture consists of white mats adorned with golden fringes.

Private houses. The houses of private individuals are of wood, painted white so as to have the appearance of stone; the upper story serves as a wardrobe and store-room; the ground floor is in one large apartment, divisible at pleasure into smaller portions by moveable partitions; neither chairs nor tables are used, mats being the only seats; the emperor himself, when he gives an audience to any of his subjects, is seated on a carpet.

* Verhandeliger van C. Bataviaasch Genootschaap, V. 566.

† Kæmpfer, I. p. 167, (French.)

‡ Thunberg, IV. p. 54. § Kæmpfer, II. 271, 344.

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Other towns.

Going north-east from Iedo, we find two of the principal towns, Gasima and Namboo. In a south-west direction we have the town of Odowara, where catechu, erroneously called Japan earth, is prepared; Okosaki, with its magnificent bridge; and Kerma, one of the wealthiest in the empire, where there is a strong castle surrounded with water. It is the capital of the fertile province of Owari, which gives its name to a bay.

Miaco.

Miaco, the second city of the empire, is in an inland situation, in a level plain 150 miles south-west of Iedo. It is the principal seat of manufactures and trade. There the royal coin is struck. It is the seat of the chief priest or *Daïri* with his court of literati, and the place where all the books are printed. Kæmpfer informs us that, according to a census taken in 1674, the population of this place amounted to 405,642 persons, of whom 182,070 were males, and 223,572 females, independently of the numerous court of the Daïri.* The vast palace of this Japanese Pope is inacessible to strangers; but the temples of the holy city have been visited and described. That of Daiboots is the richest building in Japan, though only of wood. The gilt image of the divinity, sitting on a flower like the Hindoo idols, is twenty-five feet broad between the shoulders, and capable of containing several people in the palm of his hand. The pyramidal roofs of the temples and palaces harmonize agreeably with the wooded hills surrounding the city, and from which several limpid rills flow.†

Temple of Daiboots.

The Gokinai provinces.

The five provinces adjoining to Miaco, reserved for the maintenance of the imperial court, are comprehended under the name of Gokinaï: they abound in rice and pulse. In one of them called Sitz or Sidsjow, we find the important city of Osacca, the port of Miaco, and one of the most flourishing cities of the empire. The canals by which it is intersected, and which are crossed by bridges of cedar, remind us of Venice. The pleasures which predominate

* Kæmpfer, II. 247.

† Kæmpfer, II. 234, 305, 339, &c.

ere, together with the great abundance and easy price of provisions, attract a great many who are in quest of voluptuous indulgence.* Fiogo in the same province, on the Gulf of Osacca, possesses a harbour protected by a very large mole. Mooroo, in the province of Farima, is furnished with a natural harbour. Horses hides are manufactured into leather at this place in the manner of the Russians.

The towns on the northern and western coasts of the island of Niphon are only known to us by name. The case is the same with those of the whole island of Sikokf, which have not been visited by travellers. In the island of Kiusiu, we distinguish the famous harbour of Nangasaki, the only one in which foreign vessels are allowed to anchor, this privilege itself being at present confined to the Dutch and Chinese. This place was formerly nothing more than a village, and is indebted to the Portuguese commerce for its prosperity and importance. Nangasaki contains eighty-seven streets, each 130 yards long, which is the length legally assigned to a street; the houses therefore may be reckoned at a thousand. When approached by sea, this city presents views which would be sought for in vain in the most celebrated of our picturesque gardens. A rock 238 paces long is the only place in which the Dutch merchants are allowed to reside, where they live in a state of seclusion and solitude worse than monkish, immersed in a total ignorance of the whole world beside.

The isle of Kiusiu or of Saikokf, which once formed a separate kingdom,† still contains the following large towns: Sanga, celebrated for beautiful women, and a manufacture of almost transparent porcelain; Kokura, the place from which people pass to Simonoseki in the isle of Niphon; and Cangoxima, where the Portuguese landed when they first discovered this country. The islands of Firando and Amakusa had great celebrity at that epoch, from being

Different towns.

* Kæmpfer, II, 223.

† Kæmpfer, II, p. 6, 201.

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the first seats of the Christian religion. The isle of Tsusima, between Kiusiu and Corea, forms a principality which was tributary to the Coreans before it became subject to the Japanese. The archipelago of Gotto terminates Japan on the south-west.

To the south, the island of Likeo, which we must not confound with the islands of Lieu-kieu, is separated from Kiusiu by a narrow strait. It is governed by a *dairi* or native pontiff, who is a vassal to the prince of Satsuma. The inhabitants raise two crops of rice in the year. They cultivate their fields to the music of songs accompanied by the lyre. It is separated by Van Diemen's Strait from the island of Tanao-sima, and a chain of smaller islands, extending in the direction of the archipelago of Lieu-kieu.

To the south-east the Japanese empire includes a small archipelago, containing a burning volcano, and traces of several subterraneous fires now extinguished. The most considerable island is called Fatsisio, which is 500 feet high,* and steep on all sides; so that it is only accessible by means of steps of ropes fixed to the tops of the rocks. Here it is said that loose women who have been disgraced and exiled, weave silk stuffs, according to strange designs dictated by a devious imagination.

The isle Fatsisio.

The Japanese are well formed, free and easy in their gestures, of a hardy constitution, and of middling stature. Their yellow complexion sometimes inclines to brown, and at others passes into a pale white. The women of distinction, seldom exposing themselves to the air without a veil preserve complexions equally fair with those of our European ladies. It is by a peculiarity in the eyes that the Japanese are chiefly distinguished. They are farther from a round shape than in any other people: oblong, small, and sunk, as if constantly winking. Their eyelids form a deeper furrow, and their eyebrows are placed a little higher than

The Japanese.

Physical constitution.

Their eyes.

* *Fatsi* signifies ten, and *sjo* eight in the Japanese language.

we generally find them in other nations. They have for the most part large heads, short necks, broad snubby noses, and the hair black, thick, and glossy from being habitually anointed.

Their origin.

In these physical characters we may perhaps trace a mixture of a Chinese with a Mongolian or Mantchoorian race.* The Japanese history, after describing a series of gods and demigods, says that the nation owed the first steps of its civilization to a Chinese colony. Their annals go back to a Chinese monarch called Sin-Mousa. They represent him with the head of a bull, because he taught them agriculture and the management of cattle. But the language of the Japanese, a more authentic document, gives no evidence of any foreign extraction of these islanders. It contains few Chinese terms. It has no resemblance to that of Mantchooria, of Iesso, or the Kurile islands. The resemblances said to have been found by a learned person between the Japanese and Tartar languages have long remained without confirmation.† The Japanese words are not monosyllabic like the Chinese; the conjugations and the syntax have a distinct and original character.‡ The Japanese or *Yomi* language, is employed in poetry and conversation. The bonzes write their theological books in Chinese, which is to them what Latin is to us.

Language.

Historical epoch.

If it is said that the indigenous Japanese have been subjugated by a tribe of Mongols or Mantchoos, who adopted the language of the conquered, at what epoch are we to fix such an invasion? The sacred era of the Japanese goes back to the establishment of the hereditary succession of the *daïris* or ecclesiastical emperors, which was 660 years before the Christian era. This dynasty retained its

* De Guignes, Histoire des Huns. Gatterer, Manuel d'Hist. Univ. part 2d. Vol. I. p. 441. Kæmpfer, I. 87, 88.

† Bayer, Thesaur. epist. La Croz. I. 54.

‡ Thunberg, Observationes in linguam Japonicam, in Nov. Act. Upsal. 1792, V. p. 258-273. Hervas, Catalogo de las lenguas, II. 64.

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power till the year 1585 of our vulgar era. In this interval two invasions had been repelled, that of the Mantchoos in 799, the accounts of which are accompanied with many fables. In 1281, the Mongols, under Mangoo Khan, having conquered China fourteen years before, attempted to take possession of Japan. The learned Amiot has given us, in a work translated from the Chinese,* the history of that expedition according to the Chinese authors. In this history, the Chinese army, joined to that of the Coreans, amounted to 100,000. The Coreans furnished 900 ships of war; but that great armada was dispersed in a dreadful storm: an event which the Japanese attributed to the protecting care of their gods. All the acquisitions which the population of Japan could have received from the continent of Asia are confined to some colonies of Chinese and Corean emigrants.

Conclusion.

The Japanese are probably, like all the principal nations of the world, so far aboriginal that their origin is beyond the reach of history. If they came from the continent, they must have left it previously to the formation of the present languages. They have some obscure accounts that besides their race there were other two in the same island of Niphon, the *Mosins* or hairy Kurilians in the north, and a nation of negroes in the south. Perhaps the latter were the Haraforas of the Philippine islands. Many other primitive races may have shone in their day, and, unknown to the rest of the world, become extinct.

Government.

In the year 1128, the *daïri* or emperor-pontiff, who is descended from the national gods, was weak enough to appoint a military chief called the *kubo* or *tzioogoon*. The power of this great functionary, consolidated by hereditary succession, grew by victories and by intrigues, till in 1585 the kubo deprived the daïri of the last semblance of political authority. Ever since this revolution, the govern-

* An Introduction to the History of the Nations tributary to China, composed by order of the Emperor Kang-Hi. MS. in the Imperial Library.

ment of Japan may be considered as an absolute and hereditary monarchy, supported by a great number of subordinate hereditary princes, also absolute, whose submission to the supreme power is secured by their reciprocal jealousies and the hostages which they give. Each prince arranges the revenue of his own fief or government. By them he defrays the expenses of his court, maintains a military force, repairs the highways, and contributes to the general expenditure of the state. The *daimios* or princes of the first degree, and the *siomiqs* who are their inferiors in rank, possess a dignity which is hereditary. The *siomios* are not only obliged to leave their families in the capital, but also to reside there six months in the year.

Civil Laws

Travellers admire the Japanese laws. Kæmpfer gives them the preference over those of Europe. Justice is administered in the most expeditious manner. The parties appear in person before the judge, who passes his sentence without delay. But this traveller gives no account of any legal code. He also reduces the value of his authority, by insisting on the pretended advantage arising from the law by which the visits of foreigners are prohibited, and no Japanese is allowed under pain of death to leave his country. According to Thunberg, the laws of this country are few, but executed with the utmost rigour and without respect of persons; only that the rich, when found guilty, are allowed to get off by paying pecuniary fines.* Delinquencies of little magnitude are punished with death; but the sentence must be signed by the emperor's privy council. The moral education of children being a political duty, parents are rendered accountable for the crimes of those whose early vices they ought to have repressed. The police is vigilant. Not only is there in each town a chief magistrate of police called the *nimban;* but the inhabitants of each street, being accountable in a body for the offences committed by any one of their number, nominate a commissioner who watches over the safety of lives and properties.

* Thunberg, t. IV. 64.

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In each village there is a place surrounded with palisades, containing in the middle an inscription in large characters, consisting of a code of police regulations.* It must however be confessed that Varenius, a well informed Dutch writer, gives a less favourable idea of the laws of Japan. The punishments in the seventeenth century were marked with the utmost cruelty. To hack the criminal to pieces, to open his belly with a knife, to suspend him with iron hooks fixed in his sides, or to throw him into boiling oil, were common modes of punishment. The great were allowed the privilege of ripping up their bowels with their own hands.† Valentine also describes the legislation of Japan as ferocious and sanguinary. When we are told that crimes are rare in this country, we are not to infer that the laws must be excellent. How can it be otherwise in a country where every citizen is responsible for the offences of his neighbour; and where families and entire villages are visited with the extremity of punishment for the fault of an individual? Such institutions, if they lessen the number of crimes, deprive innocence of its tranquillity, and society of its enjoyments. Would it not be better to run the risk of being robbed once or twice in one's life, than to be every moment in dread of having one's bowels laid open to atone for robberies committed by our neighbours? All that can be said in its favour is, that such terrible restraints may be rendered necessary by the degraded condition of human nature. But allowing the standard of private morals to be the lowest that can be imagined, it is a mistaken notion to suppose that the efficacy of the laws is in proportion to their atrocity. The accountableness of a portion of the community for crimes which the united vigilance of that portion is capable of preventing, is to a certain extent wise and politic, but it ought not to go beyond pecuniary fines; and it is only just where those who are liable in such payments have the exclusive management of the prevention of

Barbarous punishments.

* Thunberg, IV. 72.

† See the plates of the work entitled "Ambassades des Hollandais au Japon."

the crimes. Cruelties to those who have forfeited their lives are in all cases to be avoided; and when practised towards individuals who are not the actual offenders, they are sure symptoms of a hideous barbarism, which imagines that the abuse of the members of the community is the best method of insuring a due reverence for the laws.

Population. The accounts of travellers concur in assigning to Japan a prodigious population. Even the mountains, of which this country chiefly consists, are turned to the best account by industrious cultivators; and the *Tokaido*, the principal of the seven great roads of Japan, is sometimes as much crowded with travellers as the streets of any European capital are with passengers.* Varenius, following the best authorities,† reckons the number of troops kept by the princes and governors at 368,000 infantry, and 38,000 cavalry; and according to the same author, the Kubo or emperor has an army of his own, amounting to 100,000 infantry, and 20,000 cavalry; making in all 468,000 infantry, and 58,000 cavalry. If this statement is correct, we may reckon the population at twenty or thirty millions of souls.

Army.

Navy and navigation. The navy of the Japanese is not worth mentioning. Their vessels are flat in the stern, and incapable of withstanding the waves of a heavy sea; and, though the mariner's compass is used among them as well as among the Chinese, they are very awkward and ignorant sailors. It is indeed hardly conceivable how they could attempt in former times to keep up an intercourse with Formosa, and even with Java, as they are said to have done. Their navigation to the north, according to some Japanese maps, extended as far as the American coast in the neighbourhood of Behring's Straits, which they called Foosang. At present they scarcely venture farther than Iesso. And the inhabitants of that island speak of their voyages to Rakkosima, or "the Country of Sea Lions," which is probably

* Thunberg, t. II. p. 345. III. p. 282 and 318.

† Varenius's Description of Japan, c. IX.

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either Behring's Island or Kamtchatka, as the Greeks did of the voyage of the Argonauts.*

Revenue.

Varenius has given an account of the revenues of Japan in separate provinces. He makes the sum total 2834 Dutch tons of gold, which, valuing the ton at L.10,000, will be upwards of twenty millions Sterling, without reckoning the provinces and towns which depend immediately on the emperor. But these revenues should not be considered as national, being paid in kind to the different princes. The emperor, besides the gross revenue of the royal domains and his own provinces, possesses a considerable treasure in gold and silver.

Religious sects, Sinto.

The Japanese are divided into two leading sects of religion, that of Sinto, and that of Budso. The first acknowledges a Supreme Being, who is too exalted to receive the homage of men, or to look after their interests; but they admit as objects of veneration some deities of subordinate rank, to whom they pray as mediators. They maintain that the souls of the virtuous occupy the regions of light adjoining to the heaven of heavens, while the souls of the wicked wander through the air till they have expiated their sins. Though the doctrine of the transmigration of souls is foreign to that creed, the rigid adherents of the Sinto sect abstain from all animal food, abhor the shedding of blood, and will not touch a dead body.† They call their gods *Sin* or *Kami*, and their temples *Mia*. These last consist of several apartments and galleries, formed, according to the custom of the country, by partitions which are removed and replaced at pleasure. Straw mats are laid on boards, and the roofs form on each side a projection sufficient to cover a sort of raised path surrounding the temple, on which the people walk. In these temples no figure is remarked that can be considered as representing the invisible Supreme Being; but they sometimes preserve in a box a small image of some secondary divinity. A large metallic mirror is placed in the middle

Native worship.

* Jeso-Ki, d'Arai-Tsikoego, MS. † Thunberg, IV. p. 19.

of the temple, to remind the worshippers that, as every spot on the body is there faithfully represented, the faults of the soul are seen with equal clearness by the eyes of the immortals.* The feasts and ceremonies of their worship are agreeable and cheerful, because they consider their deities as beings who take pleasure in dispensing happiness.

The Budso sect.

The sect of Budso is originally from Indostan, and is the same with that of Budha or Boodh, which is said to have been formed either in Thibet or the island of Ceylon about eight centuries before the Christian era. Spread over Ava, Siam, China, and Corea, that sect adopts some maxims from others; but it preserves the doctrine of transmigration. It threatens the wicked with a dreadful hell, where it describes a bridge for souls, seas of water and of fire, and other imagery borrowed from the alpine regions of Thibet. It also, like that of Swedenburg, promises to the righteous a paradise of gay fields, houses, and towns. This paradise, called Gokurak, is ruled by the god Amida. Boodhaism is so mixed with the Sinto or old religion of Japan, that it is difficult, and perhaps will become in time impossible, to make any discrimination between the votaries of the two.

Japanese philosophers.

Japan has a set of moralists or philosophers, whose doctrine goes under the name of Sjooto. It has some affinity to that of the Epicureans, although its professors acknowledge, with Confucius, that virtue is the purest source of pleasure. These philosophers believe in the existence of a soul of the world, but do not worship any subordinate deities; they have no temples or religious ceremonies. It has been said that these deists favoured Christianity, and that their number has decreased since the persecution of that religion, as, in order to avoid incurring suspicion, they made a point of offering an ostensible homage to the gods of their country.

Introduction of Christianity.

From the year 1549 till 1638, missionaries of the order

* Thunberg, IV. p. 21.

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of Jesuits laboured in propagating their faith. They did not find this nation so ready as many others to embrace a plausible creed. merely because it was urged with earnest importunity. Their conversion could only be effected by arguing with them and resolving their doubts. In these intellectual efforts they obtained in the first instance great success. Several of the governors or tributary kings openly professed Christianity, and in one district the Jesuits obtained the entire prohibition of every other religion. Soon, however, the zeal of the grandees began to cool. They differed materially in one point of practice, viz. polygamy, refusing to part with their numerous trains of wives. The whole missionaries were ordered to leave the country. This mandate not being speedily put in force, the Jesuits remained, but kept themselves extremely quiet. Afterwards some zealous barefooted friars arrived from the Philippine islands, whose open proceedings revived the severities of the government; some of them were crucified, and others had their ears cut off. At the same time a Portuguese vessel having been taken near Orudo, was found to contain a quantity of arms. A strict examination being made, the captain exculpated himself from the imputation of conspiracy; but, being subsequently interrogated by the Japanese officer on the subject of the extensive conquests of the Portuguese nation, of which he had boasted, he said that these were made by sending missionaries, who converted a large proportion of the people, after which an armed force was landed, and, being joined by these converts, soon made themselves masters of the country. The rage of the sovereign Tayoosama then knew no bounds, and a persecution of the bloodiest description was immediately begun. In 1590, 20,000 Christians were put to death; and according to the accounts of the missionaries the massacre of 1638 involved 37,000. But some cotemporary authors tell us that there were no more than 20,000 Christians altogether in the kingdom.* These

* Flat de bono Statu Relig. lib. II. cap. 30.

disasters are, in part, ascribed to the pretensions to power and the political intrigues of the Jesuits, throwing an odium on the religion which they professed. It is very probable that the commercial jealousy which the Dutch harboured against the Portuguese had a share in the bloody proceedings. Ever since that memorable epoch the Catholic religion is held in abhorrence in Japan. The missionaries were perhaps too forward in setting fire to the places consecrated to the native worship. It is very probable that, if a band of Japanese missionaries should land at Havre-de-Grace, and set fire to the cathedral of Rouen, the French police would treat them with no small severity.

Progress of science, and learning, and art.

The civilization of the Japanese seems, like that of the Chinese, to be stationary: but Japan has germs of improvement which offer some possible prospect of a moral revolution. The brave and intelligent Japanese comes nearer to the European, by possessing a more masculine character, and a higher degree of civil liberty. We are told that their learned language is the ancient Chinese, and that their written characters have a great mutual resemblance; but those of the Japanese stand for letters, and not for entire words. The Chinese cannot read a Japanese book; but every well educated Japanese can read the books of China. M. Titsingh, who is now engaged in a great work on Japan, has given an account of printed books which do honour to the talent of that nation. Their types are not moveable, and they print only one side of the paper. This gentleman has in his possession a superb Herbal, drawn and coloured both with taste and accuracy; he has brought maps and plans very handsomely coloured; and which, though they have neither latitudes nor longitudes, will not be without their use in chorography. They have, since 600 years before the Christian era, been in the practice of engraving their money, and the coats of arms of their principal families.* The Dutch language is read and spoken

* M. Titsingh, quoted by Charpentier-Cossigny in his voyage to Bengal.

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in this Asiatic country. Medicine and natural history begin to be taught from Dutch books. Hitherto their physicians have been very ignorant men. Their astronomers adhere to an extremely inconvenient division of time. The year, which is lunar, sometimes begins in May, sometimes in February. Seven times in nineteen years, an intercalary month restores it to the solar course. The schools or colleges, however, seem to be superior to those of any other Asiatic country. Floggings and howlings are not the sounds with which they ring, but solemn songs in honour of their heroes and national gods. Poetry is held in honour. In some arts the Japanese surpass the improvements of European industry. They have excellent coppersmiths, blacksmiths, and armourers. Glass-works are common in Japan, and they even make telescopes; their pictures are loaded with brilliant colours, but in composition and design they are defective.

Division of time.

Schools.

Houses. Furniture. Dress.

Their houses, which, on account of earthquakes, have only two stories, would not please the taste of a European, nor would their furniture or their dress; but all these objects evince the industry and ingenuity of the people. Divided into several apartments by moveable partitions, the interior of the house is ornamented with paintings, and gilt and coloured paper; their furniture glitters with a bright and unchangeable varnish; their clothes wide, but tucked up with a sort of elegance, are of substantial cotton and silk stuffs, generally made in the country; they also make their own clasps, buckles, and other trinkets which belong to the female attire, straw slippers, (which are left at the door when they enter a house,) hats of flags which they wear in travelling, and indeed almost every article subservient to their luxury or convenience. The carriages in which their ladies ride seem to be elegant and commodious.* They procure a kind of spirit from rice, which they call *sakki*, possessed of a powerful intoxicating quality.†

* Ambassade au Japon, p. 98. 145.

† Titsingh, in the "Verhandelingen van het Bataviaasch genootschap.

A Japanese is certainly in some of his forms rather a ludicrous object: his head half shaved; the hair which is left, accumulated on the crown of his head; the enormous covering of oiled paper in which he is wrapped up when he travels; his salutations, which consist in bending his body repeatedly almost to the ground; and the fan which he constantly holds in his hand, present an extraordinary figure. They entertain a high sense of honour, and observe towards each other the most ceremonious politeness; their courtesies and ceremonies are infinite; they have many books teaching how to take a draught of water, how to give and receive presents, and all the other minutiæ of behaviour. Their chiefs are said not so much to resemble our counts and dukes as tributary sovereigns, like those of Arragon and Castile; they are supposed the entire proprietors of the land, part of which they keep for the support of themselves and their families, and divide the rest among their nobles who have vassals under them. The Japanese, proud of the minute cleanliness of his habits, despises the Europeans as a dirty race; he has no idea of our keenness in dispute, and, even when loaded with injuries, does not utter one vehement expression; but his pride is deep, rancorous, and invincible, and the poignard, which is inseparable from his person, is employed as an instrument of vengeance when the object does not expect it, or to destroy his own life in case vengeance is impossible.

Description of a Japanese.

The law allows only one wife to the Japanese, but the concubines live in the same house; the wife is at the absolute disposal of the husband; and when she incurs his displeasure she has no appeal. Connubial infidelity is rare among them, although they are subjected to no system of seclusion. In cases of divorce they are obliged to go constantly with the head shaved. In their marriage ceremonies there is an agreeable simplicity; the woman standing up at the foot of the altar, lights a torch, at which the man lights another; it is also the custom for the young bride to throw the playthings of her childhood into the fire.

Wives. Concubines.

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The bodies of people of rank when they die are burned, those of others are buried. The festival of lanterns is celebrated as in China, to which is added the custom of visiting the graves at stated times; the manes are regaled with food and drink, and treated with songs and compliments.

Funeral rites.

Spectacles.

The public amusements consist of dramatic entertainments, which are said not to be inferior to those of our polished nations; their numbers of dancing girls and boys* announce the relaxation of public morals, which is also evinced by the great number of infamous houses, which are more scandalously protected here than in any other country.†

Internal and foreign trade.

Inland communication is greatly facilitated by well kept roads; nor are there any taxes to interrupt the progress of trade. The harbours, though shut against the commercial enterprise of Europeans, are filled with large and small craft. The shops and markets teem with all sorts of wares. In the towns there are large fairs, which attract a numerous concourse of people. The Chinese is the most important branch of their foreign trade; they import raw silk, sugar, turpentine, and drugs; they export copper in bars, varnish, and gum-lac. According to Titsingh and Thunberg, the profits of the Dutch trade to Japan are very inconsiderable; two vessels only are employed in it.

Money.

The Japanese money is singular in its form. Mr. Titsingh has some pieces in his possession which have a convex elliptical shape; the gold pieces are called *kobangs;* the silver ones, which are called *kodama*, sometimes have a figure of Daïkok, the god of riches, seated on two casks of rice, with a hammer in his right hand and a bag in his left.‡ M. Titsingh's collection of coins goes as far back as 600 years before-Christ.

Such is this singular Asiatic country, too much extolled by the travelling naturalists, as Thunberg, and too much

* "Des danseuses en grand nombre, et surtout des danseurs plus qu'efféminés."

† Kæmpfer, II. 9.

‡ Titsingh, dans les Verhandelingen.

vilified by the missionaries. The attention of the former was fixed on the magnificent botanic garden, that of the latter on the stains left by the blood of the martyrs. The description of Varenius and that of Valentine seem dictated by the discontents of the Dutch nation at the time at which they were composed. Mr. Titsingh, who, while exercising the functions of Dutch resident conciliated the esteem and confidence of the princes of the imperial blood of Japan, is employed in a large historical, political, and geographical work on this country, which he seems to have studied with greater deliberation and greater zeal than any one before him.

ARCHIPELAGO OF LOO-CHOO.

The two chains of mountains which traverse Corea and Japan seem to approach one another, and have the appearance of being afterwards continued along the bed of the sea, so as to form a series of little archipelagos, extending from Japan to the island of Formosa. In this maritime region, which is little known, we find the state of LOOCHOO, or LEQUEYO. The difference in the orthography arises from this circumstance, that the Chinese letter *k*, similar to the Swedish, has neither the sound of the English *ch*, or *tch*, nor of our *k*; it, therefore, can only be imperfectly expressed by some combination of our consonants, as *tk*, or *tgh*. This is a very flourishing state, and worthy of engaging our interest. For the first good information on the subject we are indebted to a Chinese ambassador named Soo-pa-koo-ang, who was sent thither in 1719, and from whose writings Father Gaubil the missionary has extracted his account.* Kæmpfer had indeed previously mentioned it under the name of the islands of Lequeyo, but in an obscure and general manner. A very few years ago, the principal island was visited by two British vessels, which had gone out with Lord Amherst to China, and took the opportunity of making this trip during that nobleman's stay.

According to Gaubil, these islands form, as we have al-

* Lettres Edifiantes, XIV.

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ready stated, a sort of chain, or series of little archipelagos, extending from Kiu-siu, the most southerly of the great islands of Japan, to the island of Formosa; there are in all thirty-six, subject to the same government. To the south of Kiu-Siu, there are seven small islands, and a large one called Tanaxima, belonging to the Japanese empire, and to the south of these, eight others which belong to the king of Loo-Choo; they are called Oofoo Chima, or the Islands of Oofoo; the principal one is called Oofoo in the country itself, and Tatao, or "the Great Island," by the Chinese. These islands are fertile and populous, with the exception of Kikiai, which, however, like Oofoo, contains forests of fine large cedars.

Tanaxima. Oofoo, &c.

Great Loo-choo Island.

On the south-west of these is the great island of Loo-Choo; it is about fifty miles long, and from twelve to fifteen broad. The king resides at its south end, in a palace called Cheoolé, in the neighbourhood of the capital Kien-Ching, which has a sea port named Napakiang, at a distance of five miles; this place was found by the observations made on board the Alceste, to be in latitude 26° 14′. N. and in 127° 52′ 1″ of east longitude; this is its south-west point, the main body of the island extending from this north and a little easterly; all the rocks about it are of coral, and immense masses, often of grotesque shapes, are seen every where along the sea-shore; many of the same nature are found on the higher land, at a distance from the beach, the origin of which may be considered as problematical, and is supposed by some to have been disguised by the action of volcanic fire having raised them to an elevation beyond the reach of the ocean in which they were generated.* To the west of this island there are ten others, well peopled and productive, with the exception of Lung-hoang-chau, or "the Sulphur Island," so called from the quantities of that substance which it affords. On the east side of Formosa there are other seventeen, all dependent on the King of Loo-Choo.

The natives trace their history back to a period long an-

* See Captain Hall's account.

terior to the Christian era; but they had no communication with the rest of the world till about the year 605, when they were discovered by the Chinese, who found them the same agreeable and polished people as they now are, though perhaps less on the Chinese model in some particulars than they have since been. The only connection which they have had with their neighbours has been with Japan and China, and even this has been very limited, nor, from what we know of these nations, are they liable to exhibit much change, or likely to have communicated variations of fashion or of habits to others. Gaubil says that Loo-Choo was not subjugated till seven centuries after, or about the fourteenth century, and he adds that before that time the great island was divided into three political communities, whence it is called in some maps "the Island of the Three Kings."

Climate.

The climate of Loo-Choo is one of the most propitious in the world. Refreshed by the sea-breezes which blow over it at every period of the year, it is free from the extremes of heat and cold. The land does not contain those marshes which are so great a source of disease in the warmer latitudes, and the people appear to those who have visited them to enjoy robust health. Nature has been bountiful in all her gifts to that favoured country; such is the felicity of its soil and climate, that vegetable productions, very different in their nature, and generally found in regions very distant from each other, grow here side by side. Not only the orange and the lime, but the Indian banyan, and the Norwegian fir, the tea plant and sugar-cane, all flourish together. It abounds in rice, wheat, peas, melons, pine apples, ginger, pepper, camphor, dye-woods, wood for fuel, silk, wax, and salt; it also yields coral and pearls. The animals are oxen, sheep, horses, deer, and winged game. Almost the whole animal creation here is of diminutive size, but all excellent in their kind; the bullocks seldom weigh more than 350 lbs. but are plump and well conditioned, and the beef very fine; their goats and pigs are reduced in the same proportion, their poultry forming the only exception.

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The men are a very small race, the average height not exceeding five feet two inches, but sturdy and athletic; the women are of corresponding stature. They have a good deal of the Corean physiognomy, with increased mildness. They have nothing of the drowsy and elongated eye of the Chinese. The few Chinese and their descendents settled here have no appearance of having freely mixed with the Loo-Chooans, both their features and dispositions being wholly distinct. They shew no mixture of Indian blood, being quite as fair as the southern Europeans; even those who are most exposed are scarcely so swarthy as persons of the same class of society in Spain and Portugal. They are a well-bred and cultivated race. They have a priesthood of bonzes, who are generally educated in Japan. Their books on religion, morality, and science, are in the Chinese character, but, for common purposes, the Japanese letters are employed. Their language differs both from the Chinese and Japanese, though possessing many words in common with both. The emperor Kyang-Hi established a library in the principal island in 1720, and ordered a temple to be built to Confucius. To the latest visitors, the crews of the Alceste and Lyra, this people appeared amiable in the highest degree. The friendliness and cordiality of the respectable persons who composed these crews gave them an opportunity of cultivating a knowledge of their character, and exchanging with them sentiments which did the highest honour to both parties, and appear peculiarly affecting as occurring between races who met from such an immense local distance, and had derived all their ideas from sources which in the lapse of ages had no mutual communication. On such scenes as are depicted in the narratives of Mr. M'Leod surgeon of the Alceste, and Captain Hall commanding the Lyra, the mind enjoys a most agreeable repose, after having long travelled over pictures in moral and political geography which exhibit so many deplorable instances of the inhumanity arising from unrestrained passions, and from errors which generate antipathies that la-

Visit by the Alceste and Lyra.

cerate in the deepest manner the peace of society. The effect of this moral and social excellence is heightened by the delicious picture which the country, rich by nature, and admirably improved by art, exhibits to the eye, refuting the dogmatism of those who maintain that the abundance of the means of pleasure has an invariable effect in vitiating the heart, and that virtue is nowhere to be found but in scenes in which the scantiness and simplicity of the gifts of nature set limits to the wanderings of human inclination.

Scenery.

"From a commanding height above the ships," says Mr. M'Leod, "the view is in all directions picturesque and delightful. On one hand are seen the distant lands rising from a wide expanse of ocean, while the clearness of the water enables the eye to trace all the coral reefs which protect the anchorage immediately below. To the south is the city of Napafoo, the vessels lying at anchor in the harbour, with their streamers flying; and in the intermediate space appear numerous hamlets scattered about on the banks of the rivers which meander in the valley beneath. Turning to the east, the houses of Kint-ching the capital city, built in their peculiar style, are observed opening from among the lofty trees which surround and shade them, rising one above another in gentle ascent to the summit of a hill, which is crowned by the king's palace; the interesting grounds between Napafoo and Kint-ching, a distance of some miles, being ornamented by a continuation of villas and country houses. To the north, as far as the eye can reach, the higher land is covered with extensive forests." About half a mile from this eminence, the traveller is led by a foot path to what seems only a little wood; on entering which, under an archway formed by the intermingling branches of the opposite trees, he passes along a serpentine labyrinth intersected at short distances by others. Not far from each other, on either side of these walks, small wicker doors are observed, on opening any of which he is surprised by the appearance of a court-yard and house,

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with the children, and all the usual cottage-train, generally gamboling about; so that, while a man fancies himself in some sequestrated retreat, he is in fact in the middle of a populous but invisible village.

They found many of these islanders persons of great intelligence and address. One individual is particularly characterized, whose name was Madera, a man of rank and influence in the government, who came on board in the disguise of a person of mean condition, for the purpose of learning the character and intentions of these visitors, and gradually and frankly unfolded his real character in proportion as his confidence in this respect increased. A series of anecdotes is related, showing his aptness in acquiring both the language and the ideas of the English. He delighted in receiving information; and his remarks were always pertinent. The map of the world, with the track of the ship across the various oceans, from Britain to Loo Choo, with the different intervening continents and islands, when pointed out, he and others traced with great care, and seemed at last to comprehend, though such objects were entirely new to them, and though they appear to have had no idea of the figure or vast extent of the globe. Madera was gay or serious as occasion required, but always respectable, and all his countrymen seem to be gifted with a sort of politeness which might be fairly termed natural, having in it nothing constrained or studied.

Table of Geographical Positions observed on the Coasts of Mantchooria, Iesso, Japan, and Corea.

Places.	Lat. N.	Long. E. from Lond.	Observers.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Seghalien.			
Cape Elizabeth . .	54 20 0	142 45 15	Krusenstern.
— Golowatchef . .	53 13 15	141 55 15	Idem.
— Patience	48 50 0	144 45 15	Idem.
— Amwa	46 2 20	143 30 35	Idem.
Idem	46 3 0	143 29 0	La Perouse, after the corrections of Dagelet.
Idem	. . . . .	144 40 15	Chart of La Perouse's Voyage, (an error in the chronometer.)
Cape Crillon	45 54 0	142 55 15	Krusenstern's Chart, (La Perouse. Connais. des Tems.)
Idem	45 54 15	141 58 54	La Perouse, corrected by Dagelet.
Kurile.			
Canal of Nadeshda, near the peak Sarytchef	48 2 0	152 52 51	Krusenstern.
Iesso.			
Cape Soya	45 31 15	141 51 15	Idem.
— Romanzof . . . . (Notzamboo.)	45 25 50	141 34 45	Idem.
Island of Riosheri or Langlès Peak . .	45 23 0	142 10 15	Chart of La Perouse (Error.)
Idem	45 10 48	141 22 5	La Perouse after the corrections of Dagelet.
Idem	45 11 0	141 12 30	Horner and Krusenstern, (repeated and accurate observations.)
Cape Malespina . .	45 42 15	141 18 45	Idem.
— Novoilzof . . . . (Okomoov.)	43 11 0	140 13 45	Idem.
Island of Okosir (middle)	42 9 0	139 30 15	Idem.
Cape Nadeshda . .	41 25 10	140 9 55	Idem.
Volcano Bay	42 33 11	140 52 47	Broughton.

Table continued.

Places.	Lat. N.	Long. E. from Lond.	Observers.
JAPAN.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Cape Songaar . . .	41 16 30	140 14 15	Krusenstern.
— des Russes . . .	39 50 0	139 44 15	Idem.
— Noto	37 36 0	137 54 15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Island of Tsus . . .	34 40 30	129 29 45	Krusenstern.
Nangasaïki	. . . . .	. . . . .	
Cap d'Anville . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	
— Namboo	. . . . .	. . . . .	
COAST OF MANTCHOORIA AND COREA.			
Cape Romberg . .	53 26 30	141 45 0	Krusenstern.
Bay Castries	51 29 0	141 59 15	La Perouse. Connaiss. des Tems.
Cape Monti	50 30 0	141 53 15	Idem.
Suffren's Bay . . .	47 53 0	139 40 15	Idem.
Bay of Ternay . . .	45 13 0	137 29 15	Idem.
Isle of Dagelet . . .	37 25 0	131 22 15	Idem.
Tsa-Choni (Corea)	35 30 0	129 43 15	Idem.
Quelpaert (Island)	33 7 49	126 18 57	Idem.

N.B. The Table of the 68 provinces and 600 political subdivisions of Japan are omitted as of inferior importance, in order to leave room for more interesting materials.

BOOK XLII.

CHINA.

PART I.

General Description of the Country.

SEVERAL circumstances relative to the Chinese are given in our history of geography. There the question is considered which has been agitated among geographers,* whether that people was known to the ancients. We trace the progress of the Arabian travellers of the ninth century, and the missionaries of the thirteenth, as well as the celebrated Marco Polo, in their respective travels to Cathay or *Kithay*, and to Mangi, or, Maha-Tchin, or, in other words, northern and southern China. On this account these discussions will not now detain us. We shall merely mention that the travels of Rubruquis and Marco Polo remained for a long time almost unknown, and that the learned Pope Pius II., in 1448, described China only from a very short account of Nicholas Conti, who had visited it half a century before, and whose veracity the pontiff seems to doubt.† It was only by means of the Portuguese navigators who succeeded Vasco de Gama that Europe received any certain information of the situa-

Progress of information respecting China.

* See the note at p. 462 of this volume.

† Pii Papæ, II. Asia, cap. 15.

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tion, extent, and splendour of China. Since that period, we owe our knowledge to some ambassadors who have seen the court and the great roads, to some merchants who have inhabited a suburb of a frontier town, and a considerable number of missionaries who have penetrated in every direction, and who, being considered as credulous admirers though artless narrators, inspired little confidence in their judgment, so that the world was left to guess at the truth of numerous facts which these well meaning persons were ill qualified to appreciate. We have also some Chinese geographers, whose dry tables of nomenclature give us little information. Thus any extended description of China that could be given would consist of a series of repetitions.

Chinese empire.

The conquests of the Emperors of the Mantchoo (called rather improperly the Tartar) dynasty, have extended their power over a great part of the countries which used to be called Independent Tartary, but which were inhabited by Kalmuks and Mongols, races of men wholly distinct from the Tartars. The Russians at the same time advanced into Siberia. The centre of the old continent became a point of mutual contact for two nations proceeding in opposite directions from its two opposite extremities. Two great empires, the Russian and the Chinese, the one of which approaches the pole while the other passes the tropic, and which appeared to have the whole world intervening, find themselves conterminous on a line extending 3000 miles in length, from the neighbourhood of lake Palcati to the mouth of the river Amoor. This long mutual frontier follows in general the direction of the Altaïc, Sayanian and Daoorian mountains. In Daooria, however, the Russians have extended their boundaries beyond the mountains to the banks of the Amoor. Lake Palcati, the Alak mountains, and the Beloot mountains, separate the Chinese empire on the west from the Kirguis, the Uzbeks, and the other independent races of true Tartary. While the Chinese power gradually reached the frontier of Asiatic Russia on the north and north-west; it extend-

ed to the west and south-west over the vast regions of Thibet, and has now become almost conterminous with the British possessions to the north of Bengal. The small countries of Sirinagur, Nepaul, and the Garrau mountains and others, the last barrier on this side between the Chinese empire and India, are now partly under the protection of Great Britain. More to the east, the Chinese province of Yun-nan comes in contact with the Burman empire. The possessions of the Siamese do not reach the Chinese frontier; but the little kingdoms of Laos and Tonquin are its nearest neighbours in that quarter, and perhaps tributary to it.

Limits of the territory.

The Eastern Ocean, forming many gulfs and straits, washes the shores of the Chinese empire for an extent of 3,600 miles, reckoning from the Tonquinese frontier to the mouth of the river Amoor. The gulf of Tonquin and the Chinese Sea bound this empire on the south. The channel of Formosa separates the island of that name from the continent. The Blue Sea extends between China and the islands of Lieu-Choo and Japan; the Yellow Sea between China and Corea. We have already considered the Sea of Japan, the extremity of which, explored by La Perouse, has received the inappropriate name of the Channel of Tartary. It is not certain whether the Chinese lay claim to the island called Seghalien or Tchoka, a country which may acquire some importance, and of which the more active ambition of the Russians will perhaps take possession. The extremity of the Mantchoo country, which has been called Chinese Tartary, lies on the sea called by modern navigators the Sea of Okhotsk, and by d'Anville the Sea of Kamtchatka.

Surrounding seas.

The Chinese empire, comprehended within these limits, has a length of about 3460 miles, reckoning from Cashgar to the mouth of the Amoor. Its greatest breadth may be taken from the Saïanian mountains to the southern point of China, opposite to the Island of Hay-nan, a line of more than 2000 miles. Its surface may be computed

Extent of the empire.

BOOK XLII.

at seven millions of square miles, somewhat less than a tenth part of that of the habitable globe.

China Proper.

In the present book we confine ourselves to China Proper. This country presents in itself a field of very great extent, having a surface of more than 537,000 square miles, inhabited by a population which some reckon 150, and others, 333 millions. This country has, indeed, no natural limit; the Great Wall separates it from the Mongols on the north; on the west, political limits are prescribed to the wanderings of the Kalmuks, or Eleuths of Hoho-Nor, and the Sifans; on the south, the frontiers of China Proper are the same with those of the empire.

Divisions. Extent.

The following is the table of division and extent of China Proper, according to the information communicated by the Mandarin Chow-ta-sing to Lord Macartney, when on his embassy from Great Britain.

Provinces.	Square Miles.	Acres.
Pe-tche-li	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan. Two provinces	92,961	59,495,040
Kiang-si	72,176	46,192,640
Tche-Kiang	39,150	25,056,000
Fo-kien	53,480	34,227,200
Houquang { Hou-pé, Hou-nan }	144,770	92,652,800
Honan	65,104	41,666,560
Shan-tong	65,104	41,666,560
Shan-si	55,268	35,715,320
Shen-si { Shen-si proper, Kan-tchou }	154,008	98,565,120
Se-shuen	166,800	106,752,120
Quang-tong	79,456	50,851,840
Quang-si	78,250	50,080,000
You-nan	107,969	69,100,160
Kœit-cheou	64,554	41,314,560
	1,297,999	830,719,360

Names.

This country has been celebrated under more than one name; the inhabitants call it Tchon-Koo, or "the centre of

the world"; for the Chinese, in their overweening pride, consider other countries as mere stripes surrounding their own territory. The accounts of the Mahometan travellers of the ninth century, published by Renaudot, give southern China the name of *Sin*, pronounced by the Persians *Tchin*. The origin of this name is uncertain; and, though the *Sinæ* of the ancients were situated more to the west than any part of modern China, the resemblance of the names is too great to allow it to be considered as unmeaning. It is highly probable that it was the ancient generic name for all the nations of Thibet, China, and India, east of the Ganges.

Mountains

Doubts no less difficult to solve render the physical geography of China less interesting than that of so great a country ought to be. It seems to contain two mountainous regions, one in the south-east, and the other in the north-west.

Southern chains.

The great southern chain is known as far west as the provinces of You-Nan and Kœit-Cheoo. It is not ascertained whether it is continued from the mountains of Thibet or not. This chain extends between the provinces of Quan-Si, Quan-Tong, and Fo-Kien on the south, and Hoo-Quang, and Kiang-Si, on the north; it runs first from west to east, and, after reaching the limits of Fo-Kien, turns to the north-east; thus it separates the basin of the Yang-tse-Kiang, first from that of Hon-Kiang on the south, and then from the sea on the east. Two branches of that chain cut the basin of the Yan-tse-Kiang transversely, so that the three provinces of Se-Tchuen, Houquan, and Kiang-Si, should stand at a higher level than the other, and form a sort of three terraces. The principal chain must be difficult of approach, especially in the provinces of Kœit-Cheoo and Quan-Si, since there are some savage races in that quarter whom the Chinese have not been able to subdue; but travellers have only examined the little mountain of Meiling, which rises 3000 feet above the

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level of the lake Po-yang.* It is surrounded by several other less elevated mountains, and the precipices of which, covered with trees and large plants, present a view in the highest degree wild and romantic. Gneiss and quartz seem to be the prevailing rocks in this mountain-chain, called the Mangian, from *Mangi* the name of southern China, and which rivals the Appenines, or perhaps the Pyrenees.

Northern chains.

The mountainous region of the north-west does not so much consist of regular chains as a succession of terraces or table lands. Such at least they are represented in the maps of d'Anville, in which a trace of mountains faintly delineated conveys the idea of great exactness and fidelity. In the west of the province of Se-tchuen a chain of mountains runs parallel to the river Yalon from south to north, and then enters the Sifan country, where it takes the names of Kentac-la, Rhat-ci-co, and others. From this region, rich in springs, the chain turns to the east, and enters the province of Shen-si, where it runs parallel to the river Hoei-ho, then to the Hoan-ho. It gradually disappears in the province of Ho-nan. In the north of the province of Shan-si, and in the country of the Mongoos-Ortos, the Hoan-ho is found to make a turn of 800 miles to the north, and bounds on three sides a mountainous and perfectly isolated plateau.

Nature of the mountains of Shan-si.

The province of Shan-si is full of mountains, which seem to belong to a chain extending from the banks of the river Amoor across Mongolia. The secondary branches of this chain have been remarked by Dr. Gillan. The mountains are almost all peaked, and present bare rocks in every part. Most commonly the first terrace is of sand and vitrifiable stone; the second is a rough granulated limestone, filled with bluish nodules; the third is close and very irregular, formed of a hardened clay of a blue colour, and sometimes brownish red. In some places there is a

* Macartney's Embassy. Barrow, t. III. p. 29, 122. De Guignes, t. I. p. 182.

rge quantity of oxide of iron, giving the clay an appearnce of ochre. In several parts adjoining Mongolia there re perpendicular veins of white spar sometimes mixed with lue. The tops of the highest mountains contain in different places large masses of granite*

These mountains offer no traces of the agency of fire. hey seem to have been formerly covered with wood; at resent their summits, and the parts which are most exposd, exhibit none except stunted vegetable productions.

The province of Shan-ton consists, in a great measure, of large mountainous peninsula. These mountains, which ontain coal mines, constitute a group wholly detached rom the other mountains of China. The five most elevatd peaks of the chain are called by the Chinese "the Horses' Heads."

Plains.

The largest plains of China are those found in the prorince of Kiang-nan, between the two great rivers Hoan-ho nd Yang-tse-Kiang. These two rivers, with the Hookian in the south, form three great basins, which comprehend the most fertile parts of the country. The coasts of China seem in general to be rocky, sandy, and beset with shallows.

Rivers.

Hoan-ho, or "the Yellow River," receives this name from the colour of the mud which it carries along. Its known sources are two lakes situated in the country of the Kalmuks of Hoho-nor, called also the Chochotes. But according to d'Anville there is a river which flows into the most easterly of these lakes, which is entitled to be considered as the *commencement* of the Hoan-ho. Its origin is thus similar to those of the Rhone and the Rhine. Geographers make difficulties about these points regarding the origins of great rivers, as if science and truth were in danger from an error, forgetting that they are mere questions of nomenclature, and that the only object worthy of pursuit is to have one brief mode of speaking, judiciously chosen and sufficiently steady to be always understood. Where this is not the

* Macartney's Embassy, III. 207, 246, 259. Barrow, II. 241.

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case, every end is obtained by specifying the fact in particular cases, as we have now done.

Yang tse-kiang.

The Yang-tse-kiang, or "Blue River," rises somewhere in the north of Thibet, near the Desert of Cobi. But it is only by forming reasonable though uncertain conclusions from a number of contradictory accounts that d'Anville and Arrowsmith have fixed the positions of these sources.

These two great rivers, similar both in rise and destination, descend with rapidity from the great table lands of Central Asia, and each of them meets a branch of mountains which forces it to describe an immense circuit, the Hoan-ho to the north, and the Yang-tse-kiang to the south. Separated by an interval of 1100 miles, the one seems inclined to direct itself to the tropical seas, while the other wanders off among the icy deserts of Mongolia. Suddenly recalled, as if impelled by the remembrance of their early brotherhood, they approach one another, and wind along together like the Euphrates and Tigris in another Mesopotamia; where, after being almost conjoined by canals and lakes, they terminate within a mutual distance of 110 miles their majestic and immense course.

Various rivers.

Among the tributaries of these two great rivers there are some which equal in size the largest rivers of Europe. The Fuen-ho, the Hoei-ho, and the Hoay-ho, fall into the Yellow-River; the Yalon-kiang, which is nearly 700 miles long, the Tchoo or Yan-kiang, the La-kiang, and the Yuen-kiang, are tributaries to the Blue River. The two rivers Yuen and Yon run first into the lake Tonting-hoo, and the Kan into the lake Po-Yang-hoo, and these two lakes then send their waters into the Yang-tse-kiang. Each of these secondary rivers of the interior of China may be compared to the Loire, the Rhine, or the Elbe.

There are, however, two large rivers in China, which maintain a perfect independence both of the Hoan-ho and the Yan-tse-kiang. The Hoan-kiang in the south, descending from the mountains of Yun-nan, after a course of 740 miles, falls into the Gulf of Canton; and in the north

he Pay-ho, after receiving the Yan-ho, falls into the Gulf of Pekin. This multitude of rivers confers on the Chinese nation incalculable advantages for agriculture and inland navigation. But their water is seldom of a good quality for human use, probably because in their rapid descent from the steep mountains they carry along with them a quantity of foreign particles, and afterwards wind too slowly through the marshy flats.

Nature of the waters.

Some parts of China are filled with lakes, several of which are very large. Duhalde tells us that the lake of Tong-ting-hoo, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than 220 miles in circumference. From the borders of this lake to the city of Voo-tchan, on an area 140 miles long and wide, there is a great number of lakes almost touching one another. This circumstance has procured for the province its name Hou-quang, which signifies "the Country of Lakes." The lake Poyang-hoo, in the province of Kian-si, has a circumference of 90 or 100 miles, and receives four superb rivers, one of which is fully equal to the Loire at Angers. The navigation of that lake, however, is dangerous. The Tai-hoo, a lake south from Nanking, is surrounded by very romantic hills. Those of Hontse-hoo and Kaoyen-hoo, to the north of Nanking, are of vast extent. All these lakes furnish intermedia of communication, and resorts for pleasurable excursions, and are abundantly stocked with fish.* In these tranquil basins barks are navigated which are light enough to be perfectly portable; and the Chinese pelican, an aquatic bird, is trained for catching fish, a ring being fixed round his neck to prevent him from swallowing his prey.†

Principal lakes.

The Chinese have displayed their enlightened industry in uniting by numerous canals all the waters with which nature has so largely endowed their empire. Travellers

Canals.

* Barrow, III. 12. II. 387—391.

† Anderson's Narrative of Lord Macartney's Embassy, p. 277. Shaw's Naturalist's Miscellany, No. 154. Duhamel, Traité des Pêches, sect. III. ch. I. p. 17.

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are astonished at the length and commodiousness of these canals. They are deep enough at all seasons to carry large vessels. But their locks, or rather their perforated dykes, by means of which vessels ascend and descend, are constructed with very little skill.* The rivers and canals are covered with so great a number of vessels loaded with all sorts of provisions that the waters seem to have on their surface as large a population as the land. The canals have a stone quay all along their margin, and sometimes bridges constructed with wonderful art: but the navigation is slow, because the vessels are generally dragged by men. The numerous rills, the rocks, the woods, the fields, and the quick succession of villages, render China a country highly pleasing to the eye, the wonders of nature being conjoined with those of human industry. The most celebrated of these canals is that called the Imperial Canal, forming a communication between Pekin and Canton, about 1660 miles long. It was build in the end of the thirteenth century, under the grandson of Genghis-Khan. The only interruption of this long navigation is a distance of one day's journey in crossing a mountain between the province of Quantong and that of Kian-si.†

Climate.

The difference of climate between the different provinces is increased by the influence which the mountains of Central Asia necessarily exercise, the cold of which often diffuses itself over the adjoining countries. On the other side the proximity of an immense ocean must modify in a particular manner the climate and seasons of the maritime provinces.

Hurricanes.

The hurricanes to which the island of Formosa is exposed often extend their ravages over the adjoining shores of China. The Chinese history has committed to record the storm which destroyed the immense fleet destined for the conquest of Japan. The dreadful water-spouts and whirl-

* De Guignes, II. 33, 35, 195. Macartney, IV. 171.

† Duhalde, I. 33. Macartney, &c.

winds which make their appearance in the Gulf of Tonquin also infest the Chinese Sea.

Heat.

The south of China, near the tropic, experiences heats stronger than those of Bengal, but moderated by the monsoons or periodical winds. The mean heat of Canton is about 76° of Fahrenheit's scale.* The great trade wind blowing from east to west does not seem to reach the southern coasts of China, or if it does, it is only in an indirect and inconstant manner. The accounts given of these winds by navigators seem full of contradictions; the north-east winds appear to prevail in spring and summer, and the south-west and south in the fall; but both of them are liable to frequent changes.

The northern and western parts of China have a far colder climate than the countries of Europe which are situated in the same parallel of latitude. The elevation of the land, and the snows with which for the greatest part of the year the central mountains of Asia are covered, contribute to produce this difference of temperature.

Extremes of heat and of cold.

The extremes of heat and of cold are much greater at Pekin than at Madrid, though the latitude is much the same; it freezes daily in December, January, and February, and very often in March and November. The cold is often followed by excessive heat.

Climate of Pekin.

At Pekin there are, properly speaking, only two seasons, winter and summer. Calculating according to the observations of Father Amyot,† the mean term of the greatest heat is 121°; that of the greatest cold 63° below zero; the medium heat of the year 55°.

Winds.

The winds are often extremely violent at Pekin. In spring and autumn they begin at sunrise and cease at sunset; they carry along with them a copious impregnation of yellow dust resembling a shower of sulphur, which is thought by some to be the pollen of the flowers of the pines and other vegetable species that grow in the neigh-

* Kirwan on Temperature and Climate.

† Mémoires des Sçavans Etrangers, t. VI. p. 509.

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bourhood of Pekin. The north and south-west winds are the most prevalent.

Rains.

Rain is rare in Pekin during winter. Nothing but snow falls at that season, and that in small quantity. The months of June, July, and August are very rainy; November is the driest month of the whole year. Storms are frequent in December and January. The average number of rainy days throughout the year is fifty-eight. At Pekin aurorae boreales and several other luminous appearances are frequently seen, some which seem to be of the same nature occur during the day.

Agriculture.

While entering on a view of the vegetable riches of China, the treasures of an excellent agriculture arrest our attention. The principal object of cultivation is rice; but in the north-west there are places too cold and dry for this grain, which is therefore replaced by wheat. Yams, potatoes, turnips, onions, beans, and, above all, a species of white cabbage called *petsai*, are cultivated in this country.*

Almost the whole arable land is constantly employed in the production of human food. The practice of fallowing is unknown. There are very few pastures, and few fields of oats, of beans, or of turnips for feeding cattle. Even the steepest mountains are brought into cultivation; they are cut into terraces, resembling at a distance immense pyramids divided by numerous steps or stories; and, what is really worthy of our admiration, the water which runs at the foot of the mountain is raised from terrace to terrace to the very top, by means of a portable chain pump which may be carried about and worked by two men. Reservoirs are also dug on the tops of the mountains, from which the rain water that is collected is let down by a variety of gutters for the irrigation of the sides. In such places as are steep or too barren, pines and larches are planted.†

Implements.

The plough is on a very simple construction; it has only

* De Guignes, III. 326.

† Macartney, IV. 210. Planc. XXXVI. De Guignes, I. 288. III. 335.

one handle or hilt, and no coulter. As they do not fallow their ground, and have no turf to cut, the coulter is considered as useless. They sow their corn in clean drills formed by the drill plough, a method lately tried in some parts of England. The drill plough employs the women and children of the farmers. The Chinese sometimes use a large cylinder to separate the grain from the ear; they have always practised winnowing with a machine precisely similar to the fanners which were introduced into Europe about a century ago.* Implements.

The animals employed for agricultural labour and for carriage, as well as those intended for food, are generally kept in stables, and the fodder is collected for them. Horses are chiefly fed on beans and finely chopped straw. In the northern provinces oxen are used for the plough, as it is too cold for the buffalo; but the latter is preferred wherever the climate admits of it. No substance susceptible of putrefaction escapes the patient industry of the inhabitants in the preparation of manure. The different expedients to which they have recourse for the collection and improvement of that valuable article are numerous; but a description of the details is not necessary, and, in a work of this sort, would be repugnant to good taste. Bestial. Manure.

The manner in which the dwellings of the peasantry are disposed contributes to the flourishing state of agriculture. They are not collected in villages, but all dispersed. They use no fences, nor gates, nor any precautions against wild animals or thieves. The women raise silk worms; they spin cotton, which is in general use among the common people for persons of both sexes; they also manufacture woollen stuffs. The women are the only weavers in the empire.

Every one has heard of the honours conferred on agriculture by the Chinese government. Every year, on the fifteenth day of the first moon, which generally corresponds to some day in the beginning of our March, the emperor Agricultural fete.

* Barrow, III. 66. De Guignes, I. 348. II. 17. III. 339.

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in person goes through the ceremony of opening the ground. He repairs in great state to the field appointed for this ceremony. The princes of the imperial family, the presidents of the five great tribunals, and an immense number of mandarins attend him. Two sides of the field are lined with the officers of the emperor's house, the third is occupied by different mandarins; the fourth is reserved for all the labourers of the province, who repair thither to see their art honoured and practised by the head of the empire. The emperor enters the field alone, prostrates himself, and touches the ground nine times with his head in adoration of *Tien* the God of heaven. He pronounces with a loud voice a prayer prepared by the court of ceremonies, in which he invokes the blessing of the Great Being on his labour and on that of his whole people. Then, in the capacity of chief priest of the empire, he sacrifices an ox, in homage to heaven as the fountain of all good. While the victim is offered on the altar, a plough is brought to the emperor, to which is yoked a pair of oxen, ornamented in a most magnificent style. The prince lays aside his imperial robes, lays hold of the handle of the plough, and opens several furrows all round the field; then gives the plough into the hands of the chief mandarins, who, labouring in succession, display their comparative dexterity. The ceremony concludes with a distribution of money and pieces of cloth as presents among the labourers; the ablest of whom execute the rest of the work in presence of the emperor. After the field has received all the necessary work and manure, the emperor returns to commence the sowing with similar ceremony and in presence of the labourers. These ceremonies are performed on the same day by the viceroys of all the provinces.

Waste lands.

It must, however, be acknowledged, that creditable travellers have represented the state of Chinese agriculture as far less flourishing than is generally maintained. On the road from Pekin to Canton there are extensive tracts in a state of nature, arid mountains which are susceptible of no

sort of culture, and downs of an aspect as gloomy as those of Brittany. The western provinces, according to the accounts of the Chinese, contain a still larger extent of barren land.*

Fruit trees.

The Chinese have many fruit trees, but in that article their industry is far behind. Wedded to old habits, they have added little improvement to the species as furnished by nature. Their finest fruits are in general far inferior in flavour to those of Europe. They do not practise grafting. They pay very little attention to the making of wine, though several provinces of the empire abound in vines, the grapes of which are chiefly sold in the from of dried raisins. Among the fruit trees of China we may remark our lemon tree and the *Citrus Chinensis*, three kinds of oranges, among which that called *kammat* is of the size of a cherry, the Chinese chesnut, the banana, the tamarind, the mulberry, and the guava, bearing a fruit similar to the pomegranate. Several European fruits, such as gooseberries, (raspberries, according to some,) and olives, are hardly known in China. Cabbage, turnips, and potatoes form a great part of the food of the Chinese, and the culture of these vegetables is carried to a high degree of perfection.

Tea tree.

But nature has conferred on China other treasures which are peculiar to that country. Tea, which has now become an article of the first necessity for more than one nation of Europe, brings immense profits to the Chinese. The *Thea viridis* or green tea, and the *Thea bohea* or black tea, have been generally considered as trees of different species, but some able botanists, and, among others, Messrs. Ventenat and Celsius, have thought that the tea tree is a single species, only subject to varieties. Sir Geo. Staunton also thinks that the green and the bohea tea grow on the same shrub, but that the latter undergoes some preparation which deprives it of its powerful agency on the sys-

* Mémoires sur la Chine, VIII. p. 295. Duhalde, t. I. p. 14, 15. Lettres édifiantes, XXII. p. 177, (Nonobstant Macartney, IV. 471.)

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tem, and communicates to it a deeper colour. De Guignes tells us that green and black tea differ in their origin: that the one is the produce of the province of Kian-quan and the other of Fokien. Black tea has not the corrosive quality of green.* Other species, as imperial, congo, and singlo, have got these names from the nature of the ground, or the names of the districts which produced them. A particular odour is communicated to tea by mixing it with the leaves of the sweet-smelling olive. The tea shrub does not prosper in the best manner any where except in the space bounded by the Gulf of Canton on the south and the Yang-tse-kiang on the north, which lies between the parallels of 30° and 23°. Farther north and farther south the cultivation of it is less advantageous.

The camphor tree, mulberry, &c.

The camphor tree grows to a size which entitles it to be numbered among trees, and it furnishes some of the handsomest and best wood for carpentry. The branches alone are used for preparing the drug known under the name of camphor. The bark of the paper mulberry is used for making cloth and paper. From the fruit of the *Croton sebiferum* or tallow tree, a green coloured wax is obtained which is formed into tapers. The Chinese varnishes are in great reputation. They are made of a gum which is obtained by incision from a tree called in the Chinese language *shi-shu*. The *aloe* has the height and figure of an olive tree. It contains within the bark three sorts of wood; the first, black, compact, and heavy, is called eagle wood; it is scarce; the second, called Calambooc, is light like rotten wood; the third, near the centre, is called Calamba wood, and sells in India for its weight in gold. Its smell is exquisite; it is an excellent cordial in cases of fainting or of palsy. The bamboo grows in marshy places. Its tops are applied to a great many uses, on account of their lightness. While young, they

* Father Lecompte, Mémoire sur l'etat présent de la Chine, I. lettre 8, p. 368. De Guignes, III. 244, 247, etc. Macartney, IV. 192. Barrow, III. 79.

are cut and split for matting. When old, they acquire a hardness equal to that of the strongest building timber. Their fibrous part is made into paper. The sugar cane grows in the south of China, and sugar is one of the commodities which the Europeans export from that country. The case is the same with indigo. The crops of cotton are equally abundant. But cinnamon, clove, and nutmeg trees, are in small number, and confined to the southern extremity of the country.

Bamboo. Sugar cane, &c.

Arrow-root, galanga, sarsaparilla, and rhubarb, are numbered among the articles of export, but the rhubarb probably comes from Mongolia and Thibet.

Medical drugs.

In the maritime provinces of China no large forest is to be seen in the plains, but several on the mountains. There are some of immense extent in the western part of the country. Pines and birches are very common. The weeping willow, the Indian fig, the *Thuia orientalis* or *Arbor vitæ*, the *Hibiscus mutabilis*, and several other trees and shrubs form little groves, or grow detached in places not subjected to agriculture.

Forest trees.

The Chinese rear, though in comparatively small number, all the domestic animals of Europe; the horse, the ass, the ox, the buffalo, the dog, the cat, the pig; but their horses are small and ill-formed. The camels of China are often no larger than our horses; the other breeds are good, and particularly that of pigs. The kind of dog most common in the south from Canton to Tong-chin-tchen, is the spaniel with straight ears. More to the north, as far as Pekin, the dogs have generally hanging ears and slender tails.

Domestic animals.

Elephants are common in the south of China, and extend as far as the 30th degree of north latitude in the provinces of Kiangnan and of Yun-nan. The unicorn rhinoceros lives on the sides of the marshes in the provinces of Yun-nan and Quan-si. The lion, according to Duhalde and Trigault,* is a stranger to China; but the animal fi-

Wild animals.

* Trigault, Exped. Sin. L. IV. cap. 2.

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gured by Neuhof, under the name of the tiger,* seems to be the maneless lion known to the ancients, described by Oppian, and seen by M. Olivier on the Euphrates. Marco Polo saw lions in Fo-kien: there were some at the court of Kublai Khan.† The true tiger probably shows himself in the most southerly provinces, where there are also various kinds of monkies, the long-armed gibbon or *Simia longimana*, the *Simia influens* or ugly baboon, and the *Simia silvana* which mimics the gestures and even the laughter of men. The musk animal, which seems peculiar to the central plateau of Asia, sometimes goes down into the western provinces of China. The deer, the boar, the fox, and other animals, some of which are little known, are found in the forests of China.

Birds.

Tame poultry abounds in China, particularly ducks. They are seen wandering in whole flocks on the canals, and in the evening their owners call them home with a whistle. Several of the birds of the country are distinguished for beauty of form and brilliancy of colour; such as the gold and silver pheasants, which we see often painted on the Chinese papers, and which have been brought to this country to adorn our aviaries; also the Chinese teal, remarkable for its two beautiful orange crests. The insects and butterflies are equally distinguished for their uncommon beauty. Silk worms are common, and seem to be indigenous in the country. From drawings made in China it appears that it possesses almost all the common fishes of Europe; and M. Bloch and M. de Lacepede have made us acquainted with several species peculiar to it. The Chinese gold-fish, which in that country as with us is kept in basins as an ornament, is a native of a lake at the foot of the high mountain of Tien-king, near the city of Tchang-hoo, in the province of Tché-kiang. From that place it has been taken to all the other provinces of the empire, and to Japan. It was in 1611 that it was first brought to England.

Insects.

Fish.

The Gold-Fish.

* Neuhoff, Ambassade, F. II. p. 96.

† M. Polo, de reb. orient. II. 17, 67, 68.

Silver mines are abundant in China, but are little worked; perhaps the ignorance of the Chinese is the cause of that circumstance. Gold is chiefly obtained from the sand of the rivers in the provinces of Sé-tchuen and Yun-nan, near the frontiers of Thibet. No gold or silver money is coined. The tutenague is a white metallic substance, of which the Chinese make vessels and chandeliers. Its exact nature is still a problem. Some say that tutenague is the name given by the Chinese to zinc; others consider the tutenague of China as an artificial mixture of different metals, while the tutenague of India, according to them, is pure zinc without any alloy of lead.* M. de Guignes affirms that it is a native mixture of lead and iron peculiar to China. The province of Hou-quang contains a mine which furnishes it in great abundance.† Minerals. Tutenague.

The yellow copper of Yun-nan and other provinces is used for making the small coin which is current through the whole empire. But there is also a peculiar copper of a white colour, which the Chinese call *petung*, or according to some *pa-kfong*. The knowledge which we have of this metal does not enable us to decide on its precise nature. According to Kinumaun it is a composition of copper, nickel, and iron. To render it softer it is alloyed with tutenague, or what answers better, a fifth part of silver.‡ Copper.

Lead and tin are the two metals found in smallest quantity in China. That which is exported from Canton comes from Thibet and Japan. The mines of quicksilver must be abundant in Yun-nan, although we are not acquainted with their precise localities.§ Realgar, or the native sulphuret of arsenic, known to us as a violent poison, is employed by the Chinese in blocks for making pagodas and vases. When they want to take a purge, they swallow Arsenic.

* Haüy, Minéralogie, t. IV. p. 158.

† De Guignes, III. p. 262, &c.

‡ Gillan, in Macartney, IV. 289.

§ De Guignes, III. p. 255.

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vinegar and lemon juice which have been kept for some hours in vessels of realgar.*

Various stones.

Lazulite, jaspar, rock crystal, nephritic jade, magnetic iron, granite, porphyry, and different kinds of marbles, are found in China. There is a kind of marble possessed of a sonorous property, to which travellers have given the name of "the musical stone." Several images are made of potstone, (the *talc graphique* of Haüy.) The interior of China undoubtedly contains a great number of useful or curious minerals; but the information respecting them furnished by missionaries and by the Chinese is extremely vague. Rubies, corundum, or adamantine spar, and some varieties of rock crystal, are found there. Nor must we omit to mention the three substances employed in the composition of Chinese porcelain: *petuntse*, a whitish laminated feltspar; *kaolin*, a feltspar in the state of earth or clay; and *che-kao*, or sulphate of barytes.

In several of the northern provinces mineral coal is found in great abundance. The Chinese pulverize it and form it with water into balls which are exposed to dry. There seems to be no fossile salt in the eastern parts of China; and kitchen salt is procured by crystallization from seawater. The northern and western provinces contain abundance of saltpetre.

* Haüy, IV. p. 234.

BOOK XLIII.

CHINA.

PART II.

Topographical Details. Provinces and Towns.

THE general view which we have taken of the physical state of China comprehends a selection of all that appears unambiguous in the different accounts given to the world. We proceed to the particular description of the provinces, beginning with that which contains the modern capital. It is not, however, to be expected that we shall describe the 1572 towns, 2796 temples, 3158 bridges, 10,809 public buildings, or the 765 lakes, and the 14,607 mountains, enumerated by the Chinese authors. Though we shall avoid the unmeaning rapidity of the English geographers, we must not run into the opposite fault, but leave to such as Busching the unwieldy nomenclatures of the Chinese books.

Number of towns.

The province of Pe-tche-li, situated in the gulf of the same name, on the south side of the Great Wall, is productive in grain and cattle, but deficient in wood. The high mountains in the neighbourhood of Pekin furnish all the coal which is required for the consumption of the country; and though it is in general use, the mines have no appearance of being soon exhausted; these mountains also

Province of Pe-tche-li.

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yield a little gold and iron; the soil is sandy and nitrous, the air cold and healthy.*

Pekin.

Pekin, the chief city of the province, is the capital of the whole Chinese empire, and the ordinary residence of its sovereigns. It is situated in a fertile plain, at a distance of twenty-six miles from the Great Wall. It is in the form of a long parallelogram, and is divided into two cities; the Tartar, or more properly the Mantchoorian city, contains the imperial palace, and forms, along with the other or Chinese city, an irregular whole, seventeen miles in circumference. The walls of Pekin are fifty cubits in height, and conceal the buildings from the view; the gates are not embellished with statues or with sculpture, but their prodigious height gives them at a certain distance an air of grandeur. The arcades of the gates are of marble, and the remainder of broad bricks cemented with excellent mortar. The greater part of the streets are in straight lines; the largest are 120 feet wide, and nearly three miles in length, well-aired, clean and cheerful. The whole street is generally occupied with shops, in which the silks and wares of China are sold. The fronts of the houses, which are very low, have nothing gloomy in their appearance. The magnificence of the imperial palace does not consist so much in the imposing elegance of its architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, its courts, and its gardens. The walls of the palace comprehend a little town, inhabited by the great officers of the court, and a great quantity of mechanics, all in the emperor's service. Father Artier, a French Jesuit who obtained permission to visit the palace, says that it is a league in circumference, that its front is embellished with paintings, gilding and varnished work, and that the furniture and ornaments of the interior comprise every thing that is most rare and valued in China, India, and Europe. The gardens of the palace form a vast park, in which, at proper

Imperial Palace.

* Daï-syn-y-tundshi, Chinese Geography in Busching's Magas. XIV. 411, &c. De Guignes, III. 298, 317.

distances, mountains rise twenty or sixty feet in height, separated from one another by little valleys, which are watered with canals; these waters unite to form lakes and broad ponds, which are navigated by magnificent pleasure boats, and their banks are adorned with a series of buildings of which no two are alike. Each valley contains a summer house or villa, sufficiently spacious to accommodate one of the first noblemen of Europe, with all his attendants. The cedar of which these houses are built is not found within a less distance than 1400 miles from Pekin. In the midst of a lake which is a mile and a half broad, there is a rocky island, crowned with a superb palace containing more than a hundred apartments. The mountains and hills are covered with trees and fine aromatic flowers; the canals skirted with rocks so artfully arranged as to be a perfect imitation of nature in her wildest and most desolate forms. The whole has an air of enchantment. On the summits of the highest mountains tall trees encircle pavilions and kiosks consecrated to retirement and pleasure.

The temples of Pekin are not equal to the palaces. The religion of the Emperor is comparatively new in China, and its ceremonies are celebrated with less pomp in that country than in Tartary. The mandarins and literati, from whom the magistrates who rule the empire are selected, rather respect than worship Confucius, and assemble to honour his memory in simple, neat, and cleanly buildings.

Population.

The English make the number of inhabitants amount to three million, an estimate ridiculously extravagant. The city of Pekin does not afford sufficient space for three million of men to stand on. With these accounts we may contrast the testimony of the Russians who have visited Pekin,* who tell us that it scarcely doubles Moscow in extent; that a large portion of it is occupied by the palace and its gardens, and that the houses are not closer together than those of Moscow. Now we know that Mos-

* Travels of Lange, with a geographical description of the city of Pekin, published in German, by M. Pallas, at Petersburgh, in 1780.

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cow, though larger than Paris, does not contain more than 300,000 inhabitants. According to these data, Pekin will only contain 600,000, or, at most, 700,000 inhabitants.

Other towns.

Pao-ting-fou is the residence of the viceroy of the province. On the south of that city we find a small lake celebrated for the quantity of *nenuphars*, or water lilies, found in it, and which the Chinese call Lieu-Hoa. Their violet, white, or mixed red and white flowers, sometimes rise two or three cubits above the surface of the water which carries their floating leaves. Every part of this plant, even to its knotty root, is either adapted for food or some other purpose of utility.*

This city forms a stage on the road from Pekin to the province of Chan-Si, one of the handsomest and most agreeable roads that can be travelled. The whole country is level and cultivated: The road smooth, and in several places lined with rows of trees. It is constantly thronged with men, carriages, and beasts of burden.

Province of Shanton.

To the south of the gulf of Petcheli is the peninsula which forms a part of the province of Shanton. The great Imperial Canal crosses it, and by this canal all the barks pass which are bound for Pekin from the south. An infinite number of lakes, rivulets, and rivers, enliven this province, in itself barren and exposed to great droughts by the extreme infrequency of rains. One part of the province is a vast plain on the two sides of the river. Wheat, millet, and tobacco grow here, but herbaceous cotton is the chief produce of this as well as of the adjoining province of Kiang-Nan.

There are worms resembling caterpillars, which produce in the fields a white silk, which attaches itself in threads to the shrubs and bushes. Of this substance stuffs are manufactured, coarse in quality, but close and strong.

Towns.

Tsi-nan-foo, the capital of this province, is famous for the lustre of its white silks. Yeu-tchoo-foo, a large and po-

* Duhalde t. I. p. 128.

pulous district, contains the city of Kio-seoo-hieu, celebrated as the birth-place of Confucius.

Province of Kiang-Nang.

The mouths of the two great rivers, Hoang-ho, and Yangtse-Kiang, are in the province of Kiang-Nang, one of the most fertile, most trading, and consequently one of the richest in the empire. It is situated on the gulf of Nanking in the Yellow Sea. Its inhabitants are regarded as the most civilised of the Chinese. Their silk and cotton cloths, their paper, and their varnished wares, are held in higher esteem than those of any other. Here the ancient emperors constantly held their court till reasons of state obliged them to transfer it to the neighbourhood of Tartary, and fix on Pekin as their place of residence. Green tea is the chief production; the mountains, which are composed of sand-stone in well marked strata,* furnish magnetic iron, copper, and a little silver.†

Nanking.

Nanking, formerly the capital of the whole empire, is situated on the Kiang, not far from the mouth of that river. Without reckoning its suburbs, it is said to be thirty-three miles in circumference, but the missionaries most entitled to credit say that the ground now built upon does not exceed one-third of Paris.‡ Its ancient wall is at present in the midst of cultivated fields at a little distance, and perhaps the vast extent of space which it included was formerly occupied in a great measure by gardens. The palace, a most beautiful building, was burned in 1645 by the Mantchoos. The only public buildings remaining at Nanking are its gates, which are extraordinary for beauty, and some temples, such as that to which the famous porcelain tower belongs, which has eight stories, is ascended by 884 steps, and, according to the Chinese, is adorned at the top with a pine apple of solid gold. All the outside is ornamented with different sorts of designs in red, yellow, and green. The materials of this fine building are so well joined, that they have the appearance of being in one piece. In

Porcelain tower.

* De Guignes, III. 317.

† Dai-sin-y-tundshi, in Busching, p. 433, 439, &c.

‡ Journal des Savans, 1782, Juillet, p. 470. Duhalde, t. I. p. 128.

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the corners of all the galleries are hung bells without number, which emit clear and delightful sounds by the impulse of the wind. Nanking passes for the seat of Chinese learning; its libraries are more numerous than those of any other place. Here the physicians have their principal school. The satins, plain and flowered, which are manufactured here, are the best in China.

Soo-tchoo-foo, and other towns.

To the south-east of Nanking we find Soo-tchoo-foo, a town intersected with canals. This place is a school for the ablest comedians, and the best rope dancers and cup-jugglers; it is the native place of the handsomest and smallest footed women; the dictatrix of Chinese taste, fashion, and language; and the resort of the most wealthy voluptuaries of China. "What paradise is in heaven," say the Chinese, "Soo-tchoo-foo is on earth." Long-kiang-fou is a town built in the water, so that vessels enter it and depart on all sides. It exports an extraordinary quantity of cotton. Tchin-kiang-fou is one of the maritime keys of the empire, and defended by a very strong garrison. Its walls, in several places more than thirty feet high, are built of large bricks. Its streets are paved with marble.

Island of Chin-shan.

At a distance of 600 paces from the shore of Yang-tse-kiang, is the wonderful island of Chin-shan, or the "Golden Mountain." This island, the shores of which are quite prerupt, is covered with gardens and pleasure houses. Art and nature have united their efforts to give it the most enchanting aspect. It is the property of the emperor. It is in the fields of this neighbourhood that the shrub grows

Red cotton.

which produces the cotton of which the article known under the name of Nankeen is made. The fibre is not white like other cotton, but of a delicate pinkish orange, which it preserves after it is spun and woven.

Yang-tcheou-fou.

Yang-tcheou-fou is five miles and a half in circumference; and the city and suburbs are said to contain in all 200,000 souls. This is probably only a temporary population; the place being the emporium for the sale and distribution of salt. Ngan-king-foo has a separate viceroy. The inhabitants of Hoei-tchoo, the most southerly

town of the province, are considered as the ablest merchants, overreaching the Chinese who overreach all other nations. Here, also, is made the best China ink.

Province of Tché-kiang.

To the south-east of Kiang-nan lies the province of Tché-kiang, enriched by the cultivation of the silk-worm and the manufacture of silk stuffs. Nothing can be compared to the beauty of the country on the banks of the Tchiang; presenting a fresh variety of aspect at every step. In one place are steep rocks wholly destitute of verdure, on both sides of the river. In another, the river makes a turn, and suddenly displays to our view the richest and gayest rural scenery. The numerous sinuosities of the Tchiang keep the traveller's curiosity in constant exercise; and the scene is diversified and enlivened by the sight of farmers occupied in the culture of rice and the sugar-cane, and carrying the produce to the different mills along the river side.*

Han-tcheou-fou, and other towns.

Han-tcheou-fou, the capital of the province of Tché-kiang, is one of the most important towns in China, situated almost in the middle point of its extensive range of sea-coast. It has the mouth of the Imperial Canal on one side, and the river Tchiang on the other. It is the emporium of the trade between the northern and southern provinces.

Liam-po.

Ning-po-fou, which the Europeans call Liam-po, is a town of the first order, and has an excellent harbour to which the Chinese merchants of Siam and Batavia repair every year to buy silks. It also carries on a great trade with Japan, Nangasaki being at a distance of only two days' sail. The Chinese carry silks, stuffs, sugar, medicines, and wine to this country; and bring home copper, gold, and silver. Chao-king-fou is a place penetrated in every direction with canals, supplied with the most limpid water. Its broad streets are paved with large blocks of hewn stone, and extremely clean. The triumphal arches and houses are, contrary to the general custom, built of that stone. The

* Macartney, V. 183. De Guignes, Voyage à Pekin, III. 319.

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inhabitants are the most formidable of all the Chinese for chicanery. Every viceroy, and every great man, prefers a native of this town for his siang-cong, or secretary.

Province of Fou-kien.

From Tché-kiang we shall proceed southward to Fou-kien, one of the smallest, yet one of the richest provinces of the empire. Its situation is favourable for fishing, navigation, and trade. The air is very warm, but pure and healthy.

The fields are watered with an infinity of rivers which come from the mountains, and which the labourers manage with great dexterity for watering their rice grounds. Black tea is the principal produce. It also contains musk, precious stones, iron, tin, and quicksilver mines; silk, hemp, and cotton are manufactured; steel is prepared, both in the form of bars and ready-made articles of hardware; and, among the delicious and abundant fruits which it produces, the oranges are remarkable for the flavour of muscat grapes which they possess.* Fou-tcheou-fou, the capital of the province, is above all celebrated for its situation, for the great trade which it possesses, for the multitude of its men of learning, for the beauty of its rivers, which bear the great barks of China to its very walls; and finally, for an admirable bridge known over the gulf, consisting of a hundred arches, and entirely built of beautiful white stone. Yen-ping-fou, situated on the declivity of a mountain, at the foot of which flows the river Min-ho, is not large, but it is considered as one of the handsomest towns in the empire. Tchang-tcheo-fou is near the port of Emouy, a great emporium of trade, frequented by the Spaniards from Manilla.†

Emouy.

Island of Tai-ouan or Formosa.

Opposite to the coast of Fou-kien, is the large and fine island called by the Chinese Tai-ouan, and by the Portuguese Formosa. It forms part of the government or viceroyalty of Fou-kien.

* Duhalde, Martini, &c. *passim*.

† Renouard de Sainte-Croix, Voyage aux Indes-Orientales, III. 205, &c.

It was in the reign of the Emperor Cang-hi that the Chinese first extended their knowledge and power to this island. It has remained in their possession ever since they drove out the Dutch in 1661. The latter had taken it from the Portuguese. It is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains. The eastern part has been inhabited by the Chinese ever since the Dutch were obliged to leave it; the remainder is possessed by the aboriginal inhabitants.

Physical descriptions.

The coast of Formosa which is in the possession of the Chinese is certainly deserving of the name by which it is known; it is a truly delightful country. The air is pure and serene; the land is fertile in rice, in all sorts of grain, and in sugar canes: it is covered with magnificent forests, and watered by an infinite number of streams, which descend from steep and well-wooded mountains. Oxen are generally used for riding, for want of horses and asses. With the exception of stags and monkies, which make their appearance in flocks, the wild quadrupeds are not numerous. The fisheries of the coast present an abundant variety of food. Pheasants, wood-cocks, and pigeons swarm in the woods. If the earthquakes were less frequent and less destructive, and if the water of the rivers were as well adapted for human use as it is for fertilizing the fields, there would be nothing to desire in this island, which in other respects produces all that is requisite to render life agreeable.*

Towns, Fortresses, &c.

Formosa has a Chinese government with a garrison of 10,000 men, but its authority is limited to the west side. The city Tai-Ouan is populous and wealthy. The streets, in straight lines, and covered with awnings for seven or eight months in the year to protect them from the heat of the sun, lined with storehouses and elegant shops, where silks, porcelain, varnished and other wares,

* Valentyn, Oud und nlew Ostindien, t. VI. Déscription de Formose, p. 37, 40, &c. Rechteren, dans les Voyages de la Compagnie Hollandaise, V. 160, &c. Le P. Mailla. Lettres édifiantes, XIV. 28, 30.

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are arranged with admirable art, so as to give the appearance of so many charming galleries, would be delightful to walk in if less crowded with passengers and better paved. The city is defended by a good fortress, which was built by the Dutch, and called by them Fort de Zelandia. The harbour is spacious and deep, but the entrances of it are extremely narrow, and only eight or twelve feet deep.* Between the port of Tai-Ouan and the coast of China, the little archipelago of the islands of Pongou, or Pescadores (*i. e.* fishermen's islands) affords good anchorage, and a station which, with a suitable navy, might command the channel of Formosa.

Inhabitants.

The savage people inhabiting the eastern and mountainous part of Formosa acknowledge no regular government. Resembling in complexion and features the Malays and other islanders of the South Sea, they speak a distinct language from all that we are acquainted with.† There seem, indeed, to be several indigenous tribes; and in particular, according to Valentyn's account, besides an olive-coloured, there is a negro race of gigantic size. The cottages of the Formosans are of bamboo; they have articles of furniture and utensils formed out of stag's leather. According to other travellers, they have in their huts no chairs, benches, tables, beds, or any sort of furniture. In the middle is placed a sort of furnace made of earth, and two feet high, which serves them for cooking. They feed on corn and on game, which last they catch by hunting on foot, for they are possessed of surprising agility and swiftness. Their only bed consists of the fresh leaves of a particular tree common in the country. Their only clothing is a single piece of cloth, with which they cover their bodies from the middle down to the knees. Their skin is covered with indelible marks representing trees, animals, and flowers of grotesque forms; in the act of decking them-

Mode of life.

* Pierre Nuyts, Mém. sur Formose, dans Valentyn, l. c. p. 63. Lettres édifiant. I. c.

† Mémoires sur Formose, dans les Annales des Voyages, VIII. p. 367.

selves with these barbarian marks of distinction, they inflict on themselves acute pain. The privilege of wearing them is allowed to none but those who, in the opinion of the chief persons of a district, have surpassed their fellows in running or in hunting. All, however, have the privilege of blackening their teeth, and of wearing bracelets, collars, and ear-rings. In the north end of the island, where the climate is a little cooler, they dress themselves with the skins of stags killed in hunting, which they make up into a kind of dress without sleeves; and their cylindrical caps are made of banana leaves. They worship, though with little ceremony, a plurality of deities, whose priestesses are said to forbid the women from bearing children till they are thirty-six years of age, and take the most revolting means of prevention. Though we know few particulars of their superstitions, the bridge of souls, and the abyss of ordure into which they throw the manes of the wicked, indicate some connexion with central Asia.* A century ago, some of the Formosans preserved traces of the Christian religion and of the Dutch language, which they had learned together.† Their mode of burying the dead resembled that which is practised among the islanders of Oceanica. The bodies were dried and remained a long time under sheds.— We now return to continental China.

Superstitions.

The most considerable of the southern provinces is that of Quan-Ton, to the south-west of Fou-Kien, and bounded in its turn on the south-west by the kingdom of Tonquin. This province is fertile in grain and all kinds of fruits. It contains mines of gold, precious stones, and tin; also, pearls, ivory, and odoriferous woods, which are applied to all sorts of work. One rare production peculiar to this province is the tree called by the Portuguese the "iron tree;" it resembles iron in colour, in hardness, and in weight; it sinks in water. Quan-tcheou-fou, which we

Province of Quan-Ton.

* Candidius Rélat. sur Formose, dans les Voyages de la Comp. V. 162.

† Lett. édifiant. XIV. 51, 52.

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call Canton, the capital of the province, is one of the most populous and wealthy cities of China. Its harbour is the only one in the whole empire frequented by Europeans. The wall by which it is inclosed is between four and five miles in extent. The adjoining plain is diversified with arid hills, verdant valleys, small towns, villages, high towers, temples, and houses of mandarins. It is delightfully watered by lakes, canals, and small branches of the river Ta, covered with boats and junks. The city of Canton contains a great number of triumphal arches and temples richly ornamented with statues. The throng of passengers in the streets is so great that it is difficult to get along. There are few Chinese merchants in easy circumstances whose families live in the same place where their business is conducted; they are lodged either in the remote suburbs or quite in the country.

Canton.

Population.

The population of Canton is estimated by Father Lecomte at a million and a half; Duhalde reduces it to a million. M. Sonnerat accuses both authors of ridiculous exaggeration; he asserts that he has, with the assistance of several Chinese, ascertained the population of this city, and found it to be only 75,000; but he does not give the particulars of his calculation, and he every where betrays too strong prejudices against the Chinese to be credited on his bare assertion.* The companions of Captain Cook† learned from the British factors established at Canton a number of details, which seem to make the population of the city and suburbs 150,000. The inhabitants of the *sampans*, or boats, which are 40,000 in number, may be 100,000 at most, though the English have made them much more numerous. Thus Canton will contain in all 250,000 inhabitants.

Macao.

We shall describe the trade of Canton in a more suitable place, and proceed in the mean time with our topographic survey. Macao, a Portuguese establishment on a little

* Sonnerat, Voyage aux Indes, t. II. p. 24.

† Cook's Third Voyage, French translation, t. IV. p. 503.

tongue of land belonging to an island, has nothing left of its ancient importance but the name. Three or four hundred negro soldiers formed its whole garrison at the time of Lord Macartney's visit. The number of its inhabitants amounts to 33,800 according to Renouard de Sainte Croix, and more than one half of them are Chinese. This little corner of land was allowed to the Portuguese in the days of their power and enterprise; and here, for a long time, they carried on a great trade, not only with China, which scarcely any other nation then visited, but with other countries of eastern Asia, and particularly with Japan and Tonquin. At present the English carry on the trade of Macao in the name of the Portuguese.

Grotto of Camoëns.

A group of rocks near one of the highest eminences of the city forms a cave called "the grotto of Camoëns;" as tradition says that the poet of that name composed in this place his celebrated Lusiad. An English inhabitant of Macao has contrived to include within his garden wall this picturesque spot, the sacred retreat of misfortune and of genius.

Isles de Larrons.

The Larron islands, near to Macao, are always filled with pirates, who frequently carry off the small Chinese craft employed in the constant trade between Macao and Canton. A small European force could easily extirpate these pirates, but the efforts of the Chinese government to get rid of them are fruitless, in consequence of a connection which they keep up with rebellious and discontented persons of the interior.

Isle of Hainan.

The southern point of the province of Quan-tong and of continental China projects in the form of a narrow peninsula towards the isle of Hainan, which belongs to this government, except when in a state of rebellion. This island has a superficial extent of 14,000 square miles. The north part is a flat and level country; the south filled with high mountains. The air is unhealthy, and the water, unless previously boiled, cannot be used without injury. But numerous rivers, and frequent rains at fixed seasons of the year, make the fields

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fertile in sugar, indigo, cotton, and, above all, in rice, of which the inhabitants often raise two crops in a year. The capital, Kioun-tcheou-fou is situated on a promontory, and the vessels anchor close under the walls.

Inhabitants.

The natives are generally ugly, of low stature and copper complexion; their hair is passed through a ring on the forehead. They go almost naked. The women, by way of heightening their attractions, draw a number of blue lines with indigo from the eyes to the lower part of the face. Both sexes wear gold and silver buckles attached to the ears. They are armed with bows and arrows, but they are more dextrous in the use of a kind of cutlass. This is the only tool which they employ in carpentry, and for clearing away the trees and bushes which obstruct their way in traversing the forests.

Minerals.

Besides the gold mines in the centre of the island, there are several coloured boles in the north which are carried to Canton for colouring the porcelain. The best wood, both for perfume and for carving, comes from the mountains of Hainan. The most valuable of these woods, next to the eagle-wood, is that which the Europeans call rose-wood, or violet-wood. There is also a yellow wood of remarkable beauty, and which has the character of being incorruptible. This is formed into small columnar pieces, which are sold at a very high price. There is a pearl fishery on the shores. It is said that the Chinese have the art of making the muscle secrete the juice which hardens into that precious substance. When the muscle, coming up to the surface, opens its shell, a piece of packthread is introduced, to which pearl balls are attached;* according to others, they introduce a piece of brass wire, and the wounded animal covers these foreign substances with a juice which hardens into mother-of-pearl, or even true pearls.† Similar practices were not unknown to the ancients;‡ and

Precious wood.

Pearl fishery.

* Mem. of the Acad. of Sciences of Stockholm, XXXIV. p. 89, (German translation.)

† Fabricius, Lettres écrites de Londres, p. 104.

‡ Philostrat. Vit. Apollon. III. 57. edit. Olear. p. 139. Tzetzes, varior. l. II. segm. 375. Gesner, Hist. Natur. IV. 634.

Linnæus announced, half a century ago, that he had found out the secret of making muscles produce pearls.*

The province of Canton is separated from that of Kiang-si by the great mountain called Mi-lin, on which a road is formed, which goes three miles along a most frightful precipice. There is a temple in the place consecrated to the memory of the mandarin under whose orders this work was executed. The passage is thronged like the streets of a large city. Province of Kiang-si.

Passing the mountains, we discover beautiful valleys and well cultivated fields. But this fertile province produces scarcely any overplus of rice above what is required for the support of its numerous inhabitants. The latter have the character of being rigid economists, and their mean avarice subjects them to the raillery of the Chinese of the other provinces. The lakes and rivers are full of salmon, trout, and sturgeon. The mountains are either clothed with wood, or celebrated for their medicinal plants, and their mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, and tin. Very fine stuffs are manufactured here, and the rice wine of this country is highly delicate in the estimation of the Chinese. The province is principally celebrated for the fine porcelain made at King-té-tching. This place is considered as a subordinate town; yet the missionaries give it a million of inhabitants. They reckon not quite so many in Nan-tchang-fou, the capital of the province. Towns.

Porcelain is the leading article of commerce in this quarter. Indeed the true porcelain is made nowhere else. That which is made at Canton, in the province of Fou-kien, and some other places, is not so much valued in China as common stone-ware is in Europe. Porcelain.

The vast province of Hou-quang is in the centre of the kingdom: the river Yang-tse-kiang passes through it. The greater part of the province is a flat country, divided Province of Hou-quang.

* Schlœtzer, Correspondance, cah. XL. p. 251.

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by lakes, and watered with rivers, which are stocked with immense quantities of excellent fish, and frequented by numberless flocks of aquatic birds. The cattle which are fed on the produce of the fields are prodigious in number. Every sort of grain and of fruit grows here, particularly oranges and citrons in all their varieties. This province is considered as the granary of the empire. It has its mines of iron, tin, and other metals, and gold is obtained from the sand of its mountain torrents.

Towns. Vou-tchang-fou, the capital of this province, is almost the central point of China. In extent it comes near to Paris. It derives an immense profit from its manufacture of bamboo paper. Hang-yang-fou is separated from Vou-tchang-fou by the Kiang. It also is a large and very commercial town.

The strong city of Kin-tcheou-fou is considered as one of the keys of the empire. It is situated in the north-west, at the bottom of the mountains.

Province of Honan. From this fortress we may take an excursion northward into the province of Honan. The mildness of the climate and the fertility of the soil render this province a delightful country, and the Chinese call it the garden of their empire. They believe that this was the province in which Fo-Hi, the founder of their monarchy, established his court. The air is certainly both temperate and salubrious. Productions of all kinds come forward in the greatest abundance. Fields of wheat and rice, pastures, delicious fruit trees of every sort, and numbers of cattle, form almost the whole scenery of this rich country, which is almost all level except in the west, where we find mountains that are covered over with forests.

Towns. Cai-song-fou is a large, wealthy, and populous city on the river Honan, in a low situation, inferior to the level of the river. Hence, though dykes are built to protect it from inundations, it is very much exposed to danger. In 1642 the emperor ordered one of the dykes to be cut, in order to destroy a rebel prince who had fortified himself in

this place, in consequence of which 300,000 persons were drowned. In former times the Chinese were simple enough to consider Honan-fou as the centre of the world, because at that time it was in the heart of their empire.

Astronomical tower.

The city of Ting-fou-hien is famous for the tower erected by the celebrated Tchou-kong, where he was in the practice of observing the phenomena of the heavens. There is still an instrument in this place which is said to have been used by him for taking the shadow of the Sun at mid day, in order to find out the elevation of the pole.* He lived nearly a thousand years before the Christian era, and the Chinese ascribe to him the invention of the mariner's compass.

Province of Shan-si.

Let us now examine the north-west portion of China. The province of Shan-si is one of the smallest; it is bounded on the east by the Pe-tche-li. The great wall is its boundary on the side of Mongolia on the north. The Chinese history bears that this was the province in which the first inhabitants of China fixed their abode. The climate is pleasant and healthy. The country, though mountainous, is fertile in millet, in corn, and above all in grapes, of which the Chinese might no doubt make excellent wine if they chose, but they prefer drying them as raisins.

This province contains porphyry, marble, jasper of various colours, and a blue mineral with which they colour their porcelain. In every quarter there are very abundant mines, saline lakes from which salt is obtained, and mineral waters.

Towns, &c.

The capital, Tai-yuen-fou, was once a beautiful city, full of palaces inhabited by princes of the imperial blood of Tai-ming-tchao: but these fine buildings have gone to ruin. Carpets similar to those of Persia and Turkey are wrought here. Iron wares are also made, and form a prominent article of commerce. This ancient and popu-

* Mailla, Hist. de la Chine, I. 319. compare with De Guignes, junr. in the Annales des Voyages, &c. VIII. 165.

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lous city is about eight miles in circumference. On the neighbouring mountains there are beautiful sepulchres of marble and hewn stone, triumphal arches, statues of heroes, and of lions, horses, and other animals; and the whole is encircled with a forest of old cypresses planted in mutually intersecting rows.

Province of Shen-si.

Shen-si is the largest province of China. It is conterminous with Mongolia, the Kalmuks of Hoho-Nor, and the Sifans. The temperature is mild. Here for many ages the emperors resided. The inhabitants of this province are stronger, braver, and more handsomely formed than the other Chinese: its soldiery has always been comparatively formidable. It produces many medicinal plants. A great quantity of cattle, and particularly of mules, feed on its mountains. Wheat and millet grow with such promptitude, that in winter the farmers turn in the sheep upon the corn fields to keep down its luxuriance, and their growth is renewed with fresh vigour in the spring. In the neighbourhood of Lin-tao-fou, and about the fountain of the Sifans, are found wild oxen, and according to report, a species of the tiger.*

Towns, &c.

Si-ngan-fou, the capital of that province, is, next to Pekin, one of the finest and largest cities of China. Its walls are eleven miles in extent. Some of the gates are magnificent and uncommonly lofty. An old palace is still to be seen which was the residence of its ancient kings. In this city the principal Mantchoo troops destined to the defence of the north of China are stationed. In 1685 there was found in the neighbourhood, in digging the foundations of a house, a marble slab containing an inscription in Chinese characters, together with words in the Syriac language, and a cross carved on the top. Several of the learned have laboured to discover the meaning of the words and figures. There are sixty-two marks in Chinese characters, divided into twenty-nine columns; they consist

Nestorian monument.

* Duhalde, I. p. 212.

of a treatise on articles of faith, together with some points of church discipline. It contains at the same time the names of emperors or kings who favoured the preaching of Christianity when introduced in the year of Christ 635 by Nestorian missionaries from Persia and Syria.* These Nestorians had still many churches in China in the time of Marco Polo, about the year 1300.†

The extremity of the province of Shen-si, which advances to the north-west in a peninsular form between the country of the Mongols and that of the Kalmuks of Hoho-Nor, is called the district (in Chinese *fou*) of Kantcheou or Kansou. The missionaries scarcely mention it, but Sir George Staunton makes it a province.

District of Kantcheou.

Directing our course to the south-west we enter Sétchuen. This province yields to few others in the empire either in size or rich productions: it was at one time desolated by the wars of the Tartars, but it has been subsequently re-improved. The great river Yang-tse-kiang passes through it and diffuses fertility on every hand. The inhabitants cultivate silk, wine, wheat, and fruit in abundance. It contains iron, tin, lead, and quicksilver. It is famous for its amber, its sugar canes, its excellent magnets, and lazulites of the finest blue. Its horses are in request, being very handsome and spirited, though small.

Province of Sétchuen.

Towns, &c.

Tching-tou-fou, the capital of the province, was one of the finest cities of the empire, but having been destroyed in the civil wars of 1646, along with whole provinces, it has lost much of its ancient splendour; yet it is a very populous and thriving place of trade. Its position is delightfully situated on an island formed by several rivers.

Long-ngan-fou has, in consequence of its situation on the frontier of Tartary, always been considered as one of the most important places in the province. It is defended by several fortresses, more necessary in former times than now.

* Alvarez de Semedo, Historia de la China. Lecomte, Mémoir. I. 143. Duhalde, &c.

† Marco Polo, de Reb. Orient. II. 61, 64. I. 62

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On the south-east we come to a province which is acknowledged to be ill-peopled and ill-cultivated. It is filled with inaccessible mountains, which have long served as a retreat to independent hordes called Seng-miaosse. The emperors have at different times attempted to people this province, by sending to it whole colonies; but these efforts seem to have been hitherto unavailing: the tribes belonging to it are unable to supply the necessities of the numerous garrisons established in the country; and the court is obliged to supply them from the imperial treasury. The mountains contain mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, and mercury. The copper of which the small current coin of the empire is made, is partly obtained from this quarter. It produces the best horses in China. It has no silk, but that defect is supplied by stuffs made from a plant resembling hemp, which are well adapted for summer wear.

Province of Koeitcheou.

Towns, &c.

Koei-yang-fou, the capital of this province, is one of the smallest cities in China, being only about two miles in circumference. The houses are partly of earth and partly of brick. Se-tchou-fou is a town, the inhabitants of which, though the least rude of any in the same province, live in profound ignorance of the Chinese branches of knowledge. They go barefooted, and walk over the rocks with surprising celerity.

Province of Quang-si.

To the south of this wild province, we find that of Quang-si, which is not one of the best peopled in China. It produces rice in such abundance that the province of Canton is supplied from it for six months in the year. Yet it is only raised advantageously in the plains of the south, where the air is mildest. The north presents nothing to the view but an uncultivated soil, and mountains covered with thick forests.

In this province there are mines of all sorts of metals, particularly of gold and silver, but the policy of the government prohibits individuals from opening them. It

produces cinnamon of stronger and sweeter flavour than that of Ceylon.

Quei-ling-fou, the capital, is situated on the Eta. In this country are found the best stones employed by the men of letters in making their ink. Marco Polo says that he saw in that country birds which, instead of feathers, had hair like that of the cat.* These are the birds called the silk bird.

The people of Quan-si are reckoned barbarians by the Chinese, because their manners have a certain uncouthness very different from the mild and ceremonious deportment of the rest of the nation.

Province of Yunnan.

In the south-west corner we find the province of Yunnan, one of the richest in the empire, adjoining the kingdoms of Ava, Pegu, Laos, and Tonquin. It is all intersected by rivers, and the air is extremely temperate. The mountains contain mines of gold, silver, tin, and precious stones, especially rubies, and the marble called figure stone, which when polished represents in varied colours scenery of mountains, flowers, trees, and ruins. It produces small but vigorous horses, and deer no larger than our common dogs. Perhaps these are the *Cervus axis*. The inhabitants, though hardy and stout, are mild and affable, and have a remarkable aptness in learning the sciences. The nation which formerly took the lead in this province was called the Lo-los, and was governed by various sovereigns. After long wars undertaken for the purpose of subduing it, the Chinese adopted the plan of conferring on the Lo-los nobility all the honours of Chinese mandarins, with the right of hereditary succession, on condition of their acknowledging the authority of the Chinese governor of the province, receiving from the emperor title-deeds to their estates, and doing no public act without his consent. The Lo-los are not inferior in stature to the Chinese, and are more inured to fatigue; they speak a different language; and their writing, as well as their religion, re-

Nation of Lo-los.

* Marco Polo, de Reb. Orient. II. 68.

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sembles that of the bonzes of Pegu and Ava. These bonzes have built in the north of Yunnan large temples, different from those of the Chinese. The nobility of the Lo-los claim absolute authority over the people, who behave towards them with the most profound submission.

Towns, &c.

We have little knowledge of the towns of Yunnan. It is asserted that the capital, Yunnan-fou, built on the banks of a broad and deep lake, has long been the residence of a prince subject to the Chinese. It contains manufactures of satin and of carpets. Its trade in metals is necessarily great. Tching-kiang-fou is another place on the side of a lake, in a picturesque situation. Vouting-fou is one of the frontier bulwarks of the empire.

BOOK XLIV

CHINA.

PART III.

Political and General View of the Nation.

A most extensive field would still remain, if we wished to enter into all the researches which are requisite for a complete description of the political state of China. But these details, however well adapted for a monographic or statistical work, are not suited to the narrow compass of a compendious universal system of geography. This is, besides, a subject which has too often exercised the sagacity of Europeans without ultimate satisfaction. We do not flatter ourselves with the hope of being able to solve questions by which even those who have visited this singular country find themselves embarrassed. For this double reason we shall confine ourselves to a very summary view.

Physiognomy of the Chinese.

In features, and the shape of the bones of the head, the Chinese approach to the great race of the Mongols. The head is almost quadrangular, the nose short without being flattened, the complexion yellow, the beard thin; the oblique direction of the eyes is more particularly characteristic of the Chinese and their colonies, such as the Japanese and Coreans. A residence for many ages under a milder climate has conferred on this race, since their arrival from Central Asia, a particular character, and rendered their counte-

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nances handsomer, though it has weakened their expression. There is, undoubtedly, a great difference between the southern and the northern Chinese, between the inhabitants of the mountains, those of the plains, and those of the maritime districts. In colour we know there are great varieties; but we have not sufficient information to enable us to trace the successive shades by which the rough Kalmuk is separated from the polished inhabitant of Canton.

Chinese beauty.

A Chinese female becomes vain of her beauty in proportion to the smallness of her eyes, the protuberance of her lips, the lankness and blackness of her hair, and the extreme smallness of her feet. This last qualification completes the idea of beauty. In order to confer on them this high perfection, their feet are carefully swathed as tight as possible in their youth, so that when grown up they seem to totter rather than to walk.* Among the men, corpulence, as a symptom of an easy life, commands a certain degree of respect, and men of thin forms pass for persons void of talent.† People of quality allow the nails of their fingers to grow. The hair of the head and of the beard is stained black.

Despotism.

Considered in a moral point of view, we soon perceive that the Chinese possess the usual virtues and vices of the slave, the manufacturer, and the merchant. A despotism of the most absolute kind has either acquired or preserved for China the external forms of patriarchal government. But the sovereigns having neglected military discipline, frequent revolutions occurred in former times, till at last the country fell under the power of foreign conquerors, the Mantchoos. From that period the whip of the Tartar has been conjoined with the paternal rod by which China was previously governed. The only institution tending to limit the royal power, is one by which the mandarins and the tribunals are allowed

* Macartney, II. 239, Atlas, pl. 11.

† De Guignes, I. 397. II. 157, 159.

sometimes to make very humble remonstrances to the emperor on the errors of his government. Under a virtuous prince, this liberty has often been followed by the most salutary consequences.—The emperor is styled the sacred son of heaven, sole ruler of the earth, the great father of his people. Offerings are made to his image and to his throne; his person is adored; his people prostrate themselves in his presence; the noblemen of his court, when addressed by him and receiving his orders, must bend the knee; every thing around him participates in the idolatry which is lavished on his person. His numerous concubines, and the eunuchs to whose charge they are committed, not unfrequently reign in his name. When this demi-god goes abroad, all the Chinese take care to shut themselves up in their houses. Whoever is found in his way is exposed to instant death, unless he turns his back, or lies flat with his face on the ground. All the shops by which the emperor is to pass must be shut, and this prince never goes out without being preceded by two thousand lictors carrying chains, axes, and various other instruments characteristic of eastern despotism.

Adoration of the sovereign.

The different civil and military appointments are filled by nine classes of officers which the Europeans call mandarins. The power of the mandarin is fully as absolute as that of the sovereign from whom he derives his authority. An officer of this description entering a city, can order any person whom he chooses to be arrested, and to die under his hand, and no one can venture to undertake his defence. He is preceded by a hundred executioners, who, with a sort of yell, announce his approach. Should any one forget to retire to the side of the wall, he is mauled with whips of chains or rods of bamboo. The mandarin himself, however, in his turn, is not secured against the punishment of flogging. For the slightest prevarication the emperor will order the bastinado.*

Mandarins.

These mandarins are far from being what Voltaire re-

Mistakes on the Chinese government.

* De Guignes, II. 445. Mém. des Mission. VIII. 41—348.

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presents them, philosophers occupied with contemplations on the beauties of natural religion, who, raised above human passions, watch with fatherly care over the frailer virtue of their brethren. They are not a set of patriots who guard with integrity, and defend with energy, the sacred trust of liberty and public justice. They are nothing else than the satellites of an absolute despot. Badly paid, they support themselves by the produce of their vexatious exactions.

Steadiness of the laws.

The pretended wisdom of the Chinese laws may be characterised in few words. It consists in good regulations of police, and fine discourses on morality. The emperor never alters the laws, because they leave the absolute power in his hands. The mandarins have equally little inclination to alter them, because they invest them with absolute authority over the people. There are courts where, in point of form, complaints may be brought against superiors, but under the full certainty of the complainer being punished for his audacity. There is no disunion among the aristocracy, because, while they hold the rod over the heads of the multitude, they see the imperial lash waving over their own. The despotism of the Mantchoo sovereign, keeps that of the grandees in order, and obliges them to remain united. There is no resistance on the part of the people; they have no courage, though much cunning; they find it safer to preserve a part of their precious property by grovelling at the feet of their masters, than to risk the loss of the whole in order to obtain their liberty. Besides, they have scarcely a motive to rebel; though robbed by their superiors, they are suffered to rob in their turn, by using false weights, and disguising their goods. Justice is ill administered, but that is only to those who are foolish enough to neglect paying the expected price. Thus the rich man is content, and the poor is kept down. It often happens that the peasantry, on the point of starving, betake themselves to highway robbery. These, unless too strong to be overpowered, are hung. When they beat the armies sent against them, negociations and

Tyranny and slavery.

stipulations follow, or they are left independent in their haunts. From this source the governors sometimes derive a little revenue. In short, all the notions of a Chinese from his infancy are directed to a single point, obedience. The sacred nature of social rank is perpetually impressed on his mind by innumerable ceremonies; at every step he makes a bow; every phrase that he utters must be a compliment. Not a word can he address to a superior without calling to mind his own utter insignificance. But the great secret of Chinese policy, and the very basis of the empire, is to be found in an institution which in some measure deprives the inhabitants of the power of forming new thoughts, by depriving them of the liberty of expressing them by means of external characters corresponding to the words of their language. Such is the effect of the Chinese mode of writing. It has been compared, though not with much propriety, to the hieroglyphical or figured language of the Egyptians.* It can only be compared to those systems of pasigraphy, or universal character, by which some wrong-headed persons in Europe have brought on themselves universal ridicule. If all the fundamental or generally necessary ideas are arranged in a certain order; if under these generating ideas all those others are classed which are furnished by common language, or which occur to the judgment of the contriver; if each of the leading ideas has a representative sign; if this sign is arbitrary, rude, and whimsical; if these signs, elevated to the rank of the true keys of the language, are made the constant basis of signs equally abstract and arbitrary to denote the subordinate idea; this system will give us a perfect picture of the learned language of China. Its keys,† 214 in number, and its derivative signs, amounting to 80,000, do not express words but ideas. They are

Ceremonies.

Written characters.

* Fourmont, Meditat. Sinicæ, p. 73.

† Bayer, Museum Sinicum. Petersb. 1730. Fourmont, Gramm. Paris, 1742. Tracts by Deshautesraies, Hager, Montucci, de Guigues father and son; but in preference to these, Messrs. Jules, Klaproth and Abel-Remusat.

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addressed solely to the eye and the memory. They never excite the imagination; and not a hundredth part of them have any corresponding vocal expression. The beauty of a Chinese poem consists in not admitting of being read aloud;* and the eminent literati of that country conduct their disputes by describing in the air, with their fans, characters which do not correspond to any word in the language which they speak.†

Chinese oral language.

The spoken language of the Chinese is composed of monosyllables, and scarcely contains 350 terms which a European can distinguish from one another; but the Chinese can, by various inflections of the voice, distinguish a much greater number. Thus the word *tchoon*, varied by intonation, signifies "a master," "a pig," "a kitchen," "a pillar," "an old woman," "a slave," "a prisoner," "liberal," or, "to profane." Notwithstanding this contrivance, the very same sound often answers to several characters and several ideas; *pe* short, for example, signifies "north," "white," "cypress," "a hundred," and many things besides. The syntax also is barbarously meagre; declensions and conjugations are wanting, and their place is supplied by puerile circumlocutions. The written or learned language rejects these aids entirely; it places a number of characters together, and leaves the reader to judge of their mutual relations. This obscure brevity, dryness, monotony, and poverty, which render the language in a literary point of view so contemptible, prove at the same time its antiquity and its purity. It might, without much improbability, be regarded as the primitive origin of the Thibetian and Annamitic languages.

This institution, not singular in the end at which it aims, but altogether unique in its method of proceeding, perpetuates that eternal infantine imbecility of intellect by which the Chinese are degraded, and almost rendered inferior to nations immersed in the savage state. The spo-

* Barrow, II. 13. † Remusat, Essai sur la Langue Chinoise, p. 33.

ken language, in the first place, is left in a deficient state. The ideas of the people receive no enlargement, because the higher classes cannot express their thoughts except in a language totally distinct, and only understood by the select few. The information of the privileged class has no means of becoming disseminated by speech, where the signs for representing ideas have no corresponding words. This information must become obscure or utterly extinct even among those to whose care it is confided; for a dumb language of this sort, which excites no feeling of the heart, and gives no picture to the imagination, is a mere barren repository in which reflection and memory alone are concerned. The human mind has many faculties, all of which require to be developed; and the thinking being is formed and rendered fit for his office only by the joint harmonious operation of his different powers. If every thing is sacrificed to a single faculty, the sublime machine of thought will have its equilibrium deranged, and its activity relaxed and weakened. This stupid fixedness of mind, which holds the Chinese in a state of eternal childhood, bears an exact resemblance to that nullity of sentiment and of judgment which the exclusive study of a single science is sometimes observed to produce on geometricians, on grammarians, and on naturalists of classification and nomenclature.

Influence of the language.

It is almost a profanation of the name of science to apply it to the childish notions which the Chinese preserve as a precious inheritance from their ancient sages and legislators. The interests of mankind are foreign to this people. The great theatre of nature does not rouse them to those bold researches in which the science of Europe engages with such keen delight, though sometimes involving itself in error. Their vaunted moral philosophy is almost confined to the doctrine of obedience to the laws, and the minute code of humble compliments and ridiculous civilities which constitutes their notion of politeness. They have no conception of the principles which constitute the

Sciences.

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beautiful in literature, the regular in architecture, or nature in painting. If they have discovered a sort of beauty in the arrangement of their gardens and the distribution of their grounds, it is because they have copied with exactness nature in a strange though picturesque form. Projecting rocks, as if threatening every moment to fall, bridges hung over deeps, stunted furs scattered on the sides of steep mountains, extensive lakes, rapid torrents, foaming cascades, and pagodas raising their pyramidal forms in the midst of this confusion; such are the Chinese landscapes on a large, and their gardens on a small scale.* The Chinese perform arithmetical operations with incredible celerity, though in a different manner from the Europeans. Before the latter landed in their country, they were ignorant of mathematics, and all the arts which depend on them. They had no convenient method of making astronomical observations. The metaphysical knowledge which existed among them was confined to the philosophers. The arts introduced by the Jesuits flourished among them only for a short time, and disappeared under Canghi, the cotemporary of Charles II. and Louis XIV., nor is there any likelihood of their reviving. It is generally believed that they knew the art of printing before the Europeans, but that applies only to engraved plates; they never knew any thing of cast moveable types, the invention of which belongs to the Dutch or to the Germans. The Chinese, however, had almanacks printed in the block way many centuries before printing was known in Europe.

Chinese gardens.

Printing.

Industry.

Mechanical talent alone has met with encouragement among the Chinese; their industry in the manufacture of stuffs, of porcelain, of lacquered work, and other sedentary productions, is astonishing, and can be compared to nothing in the world but their own labours in the fields, as the construction of canals, the levelling of mountains, and the

* Chambers, Dissertation on Oriental Gardening. London, 1772. De Guignes, I. 377, II. 406, 409. Renouard de Sainte-Croix, III. 156.

formation of gardens. Yet in many of these same operations we find sufficient proofs of the impossibility of a nation of slaves carrying even the mechanical arts to perfection.

Navigation.

We have mentioned the great inferiority of the locks on their canals. Their navigation is equally little entitled to our praise, although they had, previously to ourselves, remarked the polarity of the magnet. The compass is in general use among the Chinese. The needle which they employ is hung with extreme delicacy, and is singularly sensible, changing its position with the least change of the direction of the box. The name which the Chinese give to their compass is *tingnan-ching*, or "the needle of the south;" and they have a distinguishing mark for its south pole as we have for the north.*

The compass.

Vessels.

Their ships are enormous machines, some of them a thousand tons burden. The two ends are prodigiously raised, presenting an extensive surface to the wind. More than one half of them are wrecked; for when once aground they cannot be raised. Their anchors are made of wood. Their pilots are not better instructed than the meanest cabin boy. On their voyage to Japan they are regulated by the stars like the rudest savage, and those who sail to Batavia, Malacca, or Queda, never go out of the sight of land.

Gondolas.

But the elegance of their sampans is deserving of commendation. That species of gondola is employed on the rivers. They are painted with a beautiful yellow varnish. The sails are made of very handsome mats, but stiff and heavy. The cordage by which the yachts are towed is of bamboo bark, and appears very good for hauling, though for any other purpose they could not be substituted for hemp and flax ropes, which are also made of excellent quality in China.

The monuments of the Chinese have been too much extolled. But we cannot help admiring some of their

* De Guignes, II. 202, 207. Barrow, I. 64, 101.

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great roads, their one-arched bridges, their pyramidal towers, and their strange but sumptuous triumphal arches.

Great wall.

The GREAT WALL, in a most particular manner, cannot be beheld without astonishment. This celebrated rampart of China passes over high mountains, crosses deep valleys, and extends from the province of Shen-si to Wanghay, or the Yellow Sea, in a line of 1240 miles. In many places it is only a simple rampart; in others it has foundations of granite, and is built of brick and mortar.

Antiquity of this monument.

Sir George Staunton, with Duhalde, considers the antiquity of this great wall as undoubted.* Duhalde informs us that it was built 215 years before the Christian era, by the orders of the first emperor of the dynasty of Tsin. In another part of this work he refers the founding of it to the second emperor of the same dynasty, which makes its epoch 137 before Christ. Mr. Bell, a well informed traveller, says that it was not built till the year 1160. Among the eastern geographers, those who are more than 300 years old make no mention of the wall.† Marco Polo in the thirteenth century knew nothing of it, though he resided long in Cathay, or the north of China and Mongolia. It is probable that this wall has been rebuilt, neglected, and allowed to go to ruin more than once, according to the state of political necessities; so that the present wall is not of very high antiquity, and its preservation presents no subject of surprise.

Houses.

We shall not tire our readers with a minute examination of the domestic manners of the Chinese. The houses are of brick and hardened clay, and very often of wood. In general they have only one story. Those of the merchants have an upper story, which is used as a storehouse. The exteriors of the buildings are adorned with columns and galleries; their appearance is improved by small flower-pots, in which the Chinese take great delight, presenting an agreeable mixture of verdure with the varied colours of their numerous blossoms. Each house stands by

* Macartney, III. 225. † Muller, Dissert. de Chataia, p. 32.

itself, surrounded with gardens and spacious court-yards. The rooms are kept clean, with very little decoration. Even glass is not very liberally used, though that species of ornament might seem likely to please the taste of a vain and childish people. The Chinese dress themselves in long robes with wide sleeves, and flowing silk girdles. The shirt and drawers are different at different seasons. Furs are everywhere seen in winter, varying in quality from sheepskin to ermine. The Chinese wear a small funnel-shaped hat, which varies with the dignity of the individual, and is mounted with a large button of coral, crystal, or gold. The materials of which this button is made, and its colour, mark the differences of rank in the wearer. The general dress is simple and uniform. The only article which distinguishes the emperor himself from his courtiers is a large pearl with which his head is adorned.

Dress.

In the public festivals of the Chinese, displays of fireworks make the most conspicuous figure. In these the Chinese are said to excel; but it is in broad day that they exhibit them, as if afraid that they could not otherwise be seen. Their theatre, so much praised by Lord Macartney, seems not to have given equal pleasure to M. Guignes.* The Shakespeares of Pekin never observe unity of time or place; rules which are not quite essential in themselves, but which arise out of another rule, important in the eyes of all nations, that which prescribes for every production of human genius a unity of interest and of thought as an indispensable condition, founded in the moral and intellectual nature of man. In a Chinese tragedy the actor is often supposed to traverse immense local distances in the twinkling of an eye; and it often happens that the same who in the first act is an infant, becomes an old man before the piece is concluded.

Public festivals.

Theatre.

In the Chinese operas spirits make their appearance on the stage; birds and other animals speak as well as walk.

Chinese operas.

* Macartney, III. p. 359. De Guignes, II. 322, &c.

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"On our return from Pekin," says M. Guignes,* "the mandarins had the politeness to cause the piece called the "Tower of Sy-hoi" to be acted before us. The scene was opened by genii mounted on serpents, and taking an airing by the side of the lake. A bonze of the neighbourhood fell in love with one of the goddesses, and paid his addresses to her. The latter, unmoved by her sister's remonstrances, listened to the proposals of the young man, married him, became pregnant, and was delivered on the stage of a child who in a few minutes was able to walk. Enraged at this scandalous conduct, the genii dismissed the bonze from his priestly functions, and, in the end, struck the tower with lightning, by which it was reduced to that dismantled state in which the tower of that name actually is."

If to these incongruities we add, that an actor is often in the presence of another actor without being supposed to see him: that, in order to intimate that one enters a room, it is enough to pretend to open a door, and to raise the foot in order to step over the threshold, though no trace of door or threshold is exhibited, and that a man who holds a whip in his hand is supposed to be on horseback, we shall form a tolerably just idea of the dramatic art among the Chinese.

Vices of the Chinese.

Those who have frequented the Chinese sea-ports have been struck with the total absence of probity in the inhabitants. Perhaps in places where the temptation less frequently occurs, this vice is less prominent. There are others which seem to prevail universally; indolence in the upper classes, and slovenliness in the lower. The rich will not even give themselves the trouble to eat without assistance; they have slaves to put their victuals in their mouths. The poor eat every thing they can find; all sorts of animals, and even such as have died by disease. In so populous a country that practice may find the excuse of necessity. To the same cause is to be attributed their

* De Guignes, II. 322, &c.

exposure of children, a very ancient practice.* yet far less prevalent among them than prejudiced travellers have believed. The dead bodies of children which the police of Pekin collect in the streets, are those of infants who have died, and which have been thus disposed of by their indigent parents to avoid the expense of burial.†

The Chinese are a set of subjugated and disciplined barbarians. Seldom do they lay aside the humble insinuating air of a slave anxious to please. They rarely betray the slightest appearance of rudeness or of passion. This character partly arises from the total abstinence which they observe from heating diet and inebriating liquors. The use of tea is very general among them. A large vessel of it is prepared in the morning for the use of the family through the whole day. Chinese dishes seem shocking to every European, but it is not owing to any want of art or care in their cookery. Chinese dinners are rendered insufferably tedious by the ceremony with which they are accompanied. In those given by the emperor of China to the Dutch ambassadors, and at which M. de Guignes was present, many salutations and genuflexions were made before the guests could touch such plates as were supposed to come from the hand of the monarch. One day a large and fine sturgeon was brought to these travellers; their appetite was keen; but, before proceeding to use any freedoms, they were under the necessity of complimenting the august fish for a quarter of an hour.

Food.

Polygamy is allowed to the grandees and mandarins. The emperor keeps a well appointed seraglio.‡ Marriages depend on the pleasure of the parents. In order to obtain a wife, presents must be made to her family. Her husband cannot see her till the marriage ceremony is over. The

Marriages.

* Marco Polo, de Reb. Orient. II. 53.

† Compare Barrow, I. 281, &c. Bell, III. 323. De Guignes, II. 285—290.

‡ De Guignes. II. 283, &c.

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sex is kept in a sort of slavery; the Chinese peasant yokes his wife and his ass together to his plough.*

The graves are judiciously placed without the towns on barren hills where there is no risk of the dead ever being disturbed by agricultural operations. White is the colour used for mourning; the soiling which it so easily contracts is considered as an expression of sorrow and of a neglect of the ordinary concerns of life. The families offer a sort of worship at the tombs of such members as have fallen under the stroke of death. They assemble round the sepulchral monument on certain days consecrated to the memory of the deceased. The spirits of their ancestors seem indeed to be reverenced as a sort of household gods; an affecting illusion, which shows that the heart has not lost all influence even among the Chinese.

Worship of the tombs.

Religion.

The primitive religion of China appears to have been a branch of shamanism, the principle of which is the worship of the heavenly bodies and other remarkable objects in nature. This ancient religion has been smothered under the numerous sects which have been grafted on it. Among these is the sect of Confucius, often compared to the Stoical system of the Greeks and Romans. Like the latter, it has obtained the preference among men of condition, who perhaps once hoped to convert it into a kind of political religion. But the books of Kong-fu-tse, or Confucius, are full of superstitious ideas. The sect of Lao-kiun or of Tao-tse resembles that of Epicurus. Its founders are fond of a tranquil and contemplative life; but they admit astrology and magic into their creed; they have their monasteries and a sort of worship.

Philosophy of Confucius, &c.

Dissatisfied with these abstract reveries, the multitude listened with ardour to the apostles of brahminism who came from India about the sixty-fifth year of the Christian era. Their doctrine, modified under the name of the religion of Fo, has become that of the majority of the

Worship of Fo.

* Neuhof, Embassy, Part II. p. 50, a plate.

Chinese. It is filled with superstitions, self-accusations, apprehensions, and mortifications, suited to the timid pusillanimous character of most eastern nations. The priests of Fo are called bonzes. Their number is prodigious; it is said that there is a full million of them in the empire. All of them live by alms. These holy mendicants conceal under their sober garb a sufficient stock of pride and of avarice. Perhaps the Nestorians who, in the eighth century, were disseminated in China, introduced some ceremonies of the Christian worship which have intermingled themselves with the observances of the bonzes. The bells, the lamps, the salutations, and several other characteristics of the Chinese ritual, seem to favour this opinion. But it is a remarkable singularity in the Chinese worship, that the bonzes never suppose that they give the least offence to their idols by spreading their breakfast tables on each side of their altars. Nothing is more common in China than to see in a temple the good people drinking their tea, or partaking of other refreshments, while the little pieces of sweet smelling wood are burning under the nostrils of their god.

The religion of the emperor of the Mantchoo dynasty is that of the Dalaï-Lama. These emperors give powerful protection to that pontiff; and, in order to secure the collection of his revenues, they have now caused Thibet to be occupied with Chinese troops.

Trade.

In so vast an empire, the trade between the different provinces must be of large amount, but we are unacquainted with its nature; and, if we knew it, we should probably feel little interest in the matter. The trade which they carry on with foreign nations is not proportioned to the size and opulence of the empire. In 1806, China exported about forty-five millions of pounds weight of tea, thirteen millions of which were sold to the Americans, one million to the Danes, and the rest to the British; ten millions of pounds of sugar, 21,000 pieces of nankeen, three millions of pounds of tutenague, besides copper, borax, alum, quicksilver, porcelain, laquered ware, tin, vermil-

Exportation and importation.

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lion; 300,000 pounds of cinnamon, rhubarb, musk, and various other drugs. A hundred and twenty-two European vessels, of which eighty were English, thirty-three American, (if a geographer can be pardoned for once calling these European,) and three Danish, exported these goods. They had brought with them rice, (thirty-six million pounds weight,) cotton, linen, woollen stuffs, glass, beavers otters and foxes skins, sandal wood, catechu, benzoin, and various other drugs and spices.* These vessels, and those which landed in the harbour of Fou-kien, where the Spaniards of Manilla go for nankeens and napery, had imported into China 3,380,000 hard dollars.† If it is considered that the tea alone amounted to L.3,333,333 Sterling, and that the rest of the exportation could not be valued at less than L.2,083,333, it will be seen that the drain of specie from the western world is much less considerable than is generally supposed. In 1804, 5, and 6, it suffered a progressive diminution. The trade with the Europeans at Canton is in the exclusive possession of twelve privileged merchants called *hannists*. These merchants make immense profits; but a set of greedy mandarins, expert custom-house officers, and wily interpreters, are supported at the joint expense of the hannists and the Europeans. These different classes of persons, and the people of Canton, reap the profits of a trade the extinction of which would probably be a matter of indifference to the greater part of China.

The Hannists.

China might undoubtedly dispense with a great part of her army, which travellers tell us is innumerable. Some call it 1,462,590, others 1,800,000. We shall not attempt to contradict either of these statements. It is equally certain, according to the Chinese, that the imperial fleet consists exactly of 9999 ships. All this is sufficiently moderate for an empire which contains 333 millions of inhabi-

Army.

Fleet.

* De Guignes I. 267, 400. II. 351, 360, 369. III. 45.

† Renouard de Sante-Croix, Voyage aux Indes-Orientales, t. III. p. 152, 160. Compare with Humboldt, Essai sur le Mexique, V. p. 151.

tants, as his Excellency Tchou-ta-tzin officially assured Lord Macartney.

But what degree of confidence can we place in these enormous statements, when we find that a statistical account, composed by command of the emperor Kien-Long,* only half a century ago, made the number of peasants who were liable to the manorial tax amount only to twenty-five millions; when we find old censuses, which for fifteen centuries, make the population of China fluctuate only between forty-eight and sixty millions;† and when, on comparing the tables of population of 1743, given by Father Allerstein, with those of Lord Macartney for the year 1795, an increase of three or four-fold is found to have taken place;‡ when, in fine, we may see that each of these estimates labours under evident error, some of the numbers being literal repetitions of others, and other sums out of all proportion?

Population.

Cool and impartial men rate the population of China, properly so called, at 150 millions. The army, which may amount to 500,000 or 600,000 regular troops, and a million of nomades of military habits, has nothing formidable but its numerical amount. Bad artillerymen, ignorant of the art of military evolution, and, what is worst of all, destitute of courage and the military spirit, the Chinese would probably yield as easily to a moderate European force as they have formerly so often fallen under the invasions of the hordes of central Asia.

Military discipline.

The picture which we have now drawn is conformable to the ideas of La Perouse, of Krusenstern, of Barrow, and of De Guignes, and it is supported by the acknowledgments of the missionaries; yet it is condemned by a number of persons who, from the heart of Europe, raise encomiums on China. In the last century, China found her interest-

Critical reflection on the admirers of China.

* Day-sin-y-tundshi, translated from the Chinese into Russian, and thence into German. Busching's Mag. Géog. XIV.

† De Guignes, Observations sur le Dénombrement de la Chine. Journ. des Savans. Mars, 1780, p. 155, &c.

‡ See the tables subjoined to this Book.

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ed and ardent panegyrists in two powerful parties. The French philosophers and the Jesuits vied with each other in extolling the laws and the happiness of that country. The philosophers knew nothing of the subject on which they pronounced a judgment; the Jesuits knew a great deal. But those who reason with impartiality will never prefer the natural religion of Confucius to Christianity: nor will the free and high-minded nations of Europe admire the arrangements of a tyrannical police, the annoyance of a childish etiquette, and "the great walls" which have been erected for interrupting the communications of the human mind.

Pretended antiquity of the empire.

In the midst of these opinions, dictated by enthusiasm and party spirit, we must particularize those which relate to the pretended antiquity of the Chinese empire. We know that the enemies of the Christian religion have made it an important object of research to discover a people whose records are more ancient than Noah's flood, and more ancient than even the common term assigned as the epoch of the Mosaic creation. The pretended antiquity of the Egyptians and the Babylonians having been reduced to its proper value, they recurred to that of India and of China. The wonders of distant countries were fitted to inspire a greater degree of veneration. China was represented as a highly civilized and flourishing empire 4500 years before Christ, and if due time is allowed for the formation of such an empire, it must have existed for a period of ten or twenty thousand years. Some ill-informed missionaries, wishing from motives of vanity to display the antiquity of an empire of which they pretended to have made a spiritual conquest, went blindly into the same system, without being aware of the consequences to which it led. A bad historical compilation, translated from the Chinese,* tells us that Fohi founded the empire of China about 3000 years before Christ, and that, three centuries after

A. 2955. before Christ.

* L'Histoire Générale de la Chine, en 12 vol. trad. par le P. Mailla et l'abbé Grosier.

this, Hoang-Ti reigned over flourishing states which were 1660 miles long and 1100 broad.

Unfortunately for such narratives, China herself has produced historians candid enough to reject all the fables concerning Fohi and Hoang-Ti. They do not even venture to vouch for the traditions respecting the reign of Iao, probably an allegorical person, whose era is fixed twenty-three centuries before Christ. Let us consider in what the great actions of Iao consisted. He drained marshes, he hunted down wild beasts, he cultivated a desert country, and so narrow were the dimensions of his territory that he surveyed the whole four times in the year.* Ten centuries after this, we find the princes of China moving from province to province accompanied by all their subjects nomadic like themselves, and living all alike either in caves of the rocks or in cabins of earth.† In the time of Confucius the whole of China south of the Blue River was still a desert.‡ Nothing in the Chinese annals of that period affords any evidence of a great nation. There is no authentic monument to attest the power of those who erected it. The books, written on very brittle paper and very frequently recopied, can give no information worthy of our confidence. And we further know that, two centuries before the Christian era, a barbarous monarch caused all the writings then in existence to be destroyed. We must then, with the learned among the Chinese, give the history of China no farther extension than eight or nine centuries at most before Christ.§ The hypothesis which finds it entitled to any higher an-

Reasons for rejecting this antiquity.

Before Chr. 2537.

Ancient condition of China.

Before Chr. 1401.

Before Chr. 551.

* De Guignes fils, Reflexions, &c. Annales des Voyages, VIII. 176, Le P. Ko (Chinois) Mem. des Missionaries, I. 213. Amyot ibid. XIII. p. 171, 311. &c.

† Chy-King, Mem. des Missionaries, I. p. 108. Le P. Cibot, ibid. XV. p. 34. De Guignes, Voyage a Pekin, I. p. 73.

‡ Mem. des Mission, XIII. 311.

§ Le P. Prémare, preface du Chou-King, p. 55. Le P. Ko, Mem. des Miss. I. p. 240.

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tiquity owes its origin to the caprice of some modern literati, and the vanity of the emperors.*

Astronomical observations.

But we may be told that astronomical observations, allowed by M. de la Place to be exact,† are as ancient as 1100 before Christ. Laying aside the objections to which the authenticity of these observations is liable, admitting that they are not composed by modern Chinese, they only prove that 1100 years before Christ a civilized tribe and town existed which produced men of science. Eastern Asia may, like Europe, have had her Greeks and her Athenians. There is a great difference between that and the formation of an immense empire. From 1100 to 2300 there is also a long space of time. A shorter interval witnessed the rise, the civilization, and the extinction of Greece and of Rome.

Cannibalism, A. D. 1300.

Even subsequent to the commencement of our era China has often been divided into small states; and, if her civilization is of more ancient date, it must oftener than once have perished; for in the thirteenth century the inhabitants of the province of Fou-kien in Mangi or southern China, ate with avidity the flesh of their fellow creatures, nicely preferring that of persons in good bodily condition; drank the blood of their prisoners of war; and marked their skins with hot irons like the most savage nations.‡ The person who relates these facts had the management of a district of the country. It is a remarkable circumstance that from Marco Polo to M. de Guignes, all who have seen China have observed facts so universally tending to assuage the enthusiasm of those who cherished at a distance an admiration of China. We may praise the character of her policy in some particulars. The politician of Europe may contemplate with mixed admiration and disappointment the unyielding conviction entertained by the government of the hazard of giving access to the influence of our political intrigues; and

Summary conclusions.

* Le P. Gaubil, Obs. Mathem. de Souciet, II. p. 16, 17.

† Système du monde, p. 398, 405, trois edit.

‡ Marco-Polo, de reb. Orient. II. 67.

the moral philosopher may admire the cool and considerate theories by which they explain and account for the errors both of one another and of other nations, so favourably contrasted with the mysterious reprobation of crime and boastful displays of forgiveness which have so often rendered European and especially Spanish manifestos ridiculous, and he may view with approbation the firmness with which they execute such acts as appear expedient for the safety of the state and social order. How have they acquired a tone so dignified, and so unlike that barbarous incapacity for thinking which in other particulars they betray, and that inhumanity which marks many parts of their practical proceedings? What are the means by which the more respectable materials of the national character admit of being improved, and incorporated into a consistent system of social felicity? By what means can a condition thus formed become secure against the ambitious intermeddlings of other powers, consistently with a liberal interchange of social advantages? and finally, By what steps might such materials be adopted by those who at present value nothing so much as original genius in its free, romantic, and impassioned exercises, without weakening their mental vigour? These are problems of great interest to the citizen of the world, who flatters himself that some Utopian state of society is within the reach of his species, while he is solicitous to exclude from his contemplations the reveries of idle imagination. Such a person can have nothing in common with those who entertain a spirit of bitter animosity towards the Chinese, and speak and write as if it were somewhat unfortunate that so singular a nation ever had existence. Yet a candid wish to acknowledge their virtues need not be suffered to generate a blind credulity in the ridiculous pretensions which have so often been urged in favour of this nation.

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Table of the Population and Revenue of China Proper, from the Chinese Geography, Daisin-y-tundshi.

Provinces.	Number of Peasants subject to contribution.	Tribute of Wheat in Chinese bushels or dân*.	Tribute of Silver in lânat.
Pe-tche-li . .	3,340,544	118,162	2,422,128
Kiang-nan. .	4,256,712	189,124	5,327,614
Shan-si . . .	1,799,895	110,054	2,973,242
Shan-ton . .	2,431,936	1,271,494	3,463,221
Ho-nan . . .	2,527,456	249,476	2,605,191
Shen-si . . .	2,262,438	191,955	1,450,711
Kan-tcheoo .	451,693	520,618	300,506
Tche-Kiang .	3,124,798	1,363,400	2,856,719
Kiang-si . .	337,069	942,065	1,975,711
Hou-quan . .	752,970	609,501	1,308,769
Sy-tchooen .	650,208	. . . . .	656,426
Foo-kien . .	1,528,807	297,462	1,030,712
Quan-tong . .	1,201,320	114,579	1,286,198
Qang-si . . .	220,690	67,755	375,974
Ioun-nan . .	237,965	227,626	209,582
Quoi-tcheoo .	41,089	123,015	118,094
	25,165,390	6,396,286	28,369,800

* The dân is equal to 12,070 cubic inches French.

† The lâna, according to some, is equal to 709 Dutch *as*, and, according to others, to 772 or 781.

Old Statements of the Population of China.

	Families.	Mouths.‡
Census in the first century	12,233,062	59,594,978
A.D. 740, under the Tang dynasty . .	8,412,800	43,143,600
A.D. 1393, under Hong-Voo	16,052,860	60,545,812
A.D. 1491, under Hiao-Tsong	9,113,446	53,281,158
A.D. 1578, under Van-Lie	10,621,436	60,692,856

‡ The term used technically in China in these statements, as *souls* is in Europe.

Modern Statements of the Population of China.

According to Allerstein, 1743.			Macartney, 1795.
		Mouths.	
Fong-tien		668,852	*
Pe-tche-li		15,222,940	38,000,000
Kiang-nan, divided into			
Gan-koei	22,761,030	45,922,439	32,000,000
and Kian-soo	23,161,409		
Kiang-si		11,006,604	19,000,000
Tche-kiang		15,429,690	21,000,000
Fou-kien		8,063,671	15,000,000
Hoo-quang, divided into			
Hoo-pe	8,080,603	16,910,423	27,000,000
and Hon-nan	8,829,820		
Shan-ton		25,180,734	24,000,000
Ho-nan		16,332,507	25,000,000
Chan-si		9,768,189	27,000,000
Chen-si, divided into Si-ngan		7,287,443	13,000,000
and Kan-soo		7,412,014	12,000,000
Se-tchooen		2,782,976	27,000,000
Kooang-tong		6,782,975	21,000,000
Kooang-si		3,947,414	10,000,000
Yoon-nan		2,078,892	8,000,000
Koei-tcheoo		3,402,722	9,000,000
Total		198,213,713	333,000,000

* This province being in Tartary, is not included separately in the last enumeration.

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THIBET.

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General view.

The northern, the central, and the eastern regions of Asia, have, in the twenty preceding books, passed before us in successive review. Its southern parts still remain, the countries of the Indus, the Ganges, the Bramapootra, and the Irawaddy. All these rivers have been thought to descend from a plateau possessing a southern inclination, but separated by immense mountains from the rest of southern Asia. This plateau is Thibet. Here we approach a mysterious and sacred country, the cradle of more than one system of religion, and in the bosom of which, the seat of perpetual winter, the throne of superstition has been erected. But we must wait for a time till geographical investigation shall be admitted to profane that holy land where the pretended vicegerent of the Almighty holds his sway amidst rocks, forests, and convents.

Marco Polo's description of Thibet.

Thibet, known to us since the thirteenth century,* continued long inaccessible to European travellers. Marco Polo did not enter the country; yet he has given a very curious description of it. According to him, Tebeth contained eight kingdoms; part of it had been devastated by

* It is called Τιμπιτ and Τουπατ in the Byzantine history. Wahl, Ostinden, I. 187.

the armies of Kublaï-Khan. It abounded in wild animals; and travellers, in order to protect themselves from their attacks, set fire to the forests of large reeds, (*i. e.* bamboos) with which the country was covered. In the inhabited parts several strange customs prevailed. The natives did not choose to marry women who had preserved the treasure which in other countries husbands so highly prize. They entreated strangers to initiate their young women in impure gallantry, and to leave with them trifling presents, as memorials of their transitory intercourse. The females hung these trophies round their necks; and the greater the numbers were in which they could display them, the more certain were they of establishing themselves by marriage. The country yielded gold, musk, and coral.*

Strange practice.

On the west of Tebeth, Marco Polo placed the province of Canicloo, or Ganicloo, where there was a lake rich in pearls. It contained many of the musk animals, which they called *gaddery*, mines of turquoises and of gold, and several aromatic plants. This country seems to answer to that of Gang-Desh mentioned in the Zenda-Vesta and in Ferishta, and was once considered as the country of the Ganges from its sources to its cataracts.† It is terminated on the east by the river Brius, which is probably the Bramapootra, or Brihmapootre, which carried down gold dust mingled with its sand. Beyond that river lay the province of Caraiam, the capital of which was called Iacy. That country, rich in horses, in gold, and in rice, was infested by enormous serpents. The inhabitants spoke a peculiar language; they drank a spirit distilled from rice. The great khan made war on the king of Mien (*i. e.* Ava) and of Bangala (Bengal) for the country of Caraiam. He took possession of it as well

Provinces mentioned by M. Polo.

* Marci Pauli de Reb. Orien. lib. 11. cap. 36, 37. edit. Muller. cap. 85. edit. 1508.

† Wahl, p. 239—242.

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as of Botia immediately adjoining.* Botia was evidently the modern Bootân: and this Caraiam, which commentators have hitherto carried as far west as Little Bukharia, must be the country of Asham with its ancient capital Azoo. Perhaps the name of Caraiam has some relation to that of the Garrow mountains. In a neighbouring province called Ardondam, or Arcladam,† or Caridi,‡ the men confined themselves to bed for forty days after the delivery of their wives, and had the care of the infant committed to them. The only objects of their worship were the spirits of the ancestors of their respective families. Gold abounded to such a degree that every man wore a small plate of that metal as a cover to his teeth; and they exchanged it for an equal weight of silver, which was brought to them by the inhabitants of the country of Mien, and was not found at all in that of Caridi. Their sorcerers pretended to cure the sick by magic songs, to which they danced with hideous contortions, till one of them, seized with the influence of the demon, fell down and declared by what sort of sacrifices it was necessary to conciliate the good-will of the spirit who dictated his words. These are exactly the juggleries of the present Shamans. The capital of the province of Caridi was Nokian.§ This is the name of a great river which runs from Thibet into Ava. Thus the country of Caridi is the south-east point of Thibet, and perhaps the country of the nation of the Kariaines which is spread over Ava. Marco Polo also mentions the town of Ciangloo, or Cangloo,‖ which seems to be the Dsanclo of the map of the missionaries.

Paternal incubation.

Sorcerers, or Shamans.

Progress of information since M. Polo.

Such is the substance of the interesting account of Marco Polo, treated at the present day with undue contempt. It is more instructive than that given by Father Andrada in 1626; and it was not till the first half of the eighteenth century that the missionaries of Pekin collected

* M. Polo de Reb. Or. lib. II. cap. 39, 40, 42, 43. Muller. edit.

† Ibid. cap. 41. ‡ Ibid. edit. of 1508, cap. 89.

§ Edition of 1508, *Unchian* in Muller.

‖ Edition of 1508, *Cangloo* in Muller.

more certain information. Horatio Della Pinna, a capuchin, spent eighteen years in the capital of Thibet, but his observations were not judiciously directed.* Two rapid visits of the English, sent out on an embassy to one of the ecclesiastical princes of southern Thibet, that of Mr. Boyle in 1774, and that of Captain Turner in 1784; some information derived from manuscripts in the language of Thibet found among the Kalmuks,† and some verbal accounts given by Russian subjects professing the religion of the Dalaï-Lama;‡ these constitute all the sources of our information concerning this singular country, so interesting both in its physical and moral aspect.

Boundaries of Thibet.

Under the name of Thibet we comprehend all the countries which lie to the north of Indostan, to the east of Great Bukharia, to the south of Little Bukharia, to the south-west of Tangoot, (taking this name in its strictest acceptation,) to the west of China, and to the north-west of the Birman empire. In this wide range, Little Thibet and the state of Ladaak in the west, as well as Bootân in the south, may be considered as separate countries. The south-east boundary is little known, and in the north there seem to be provinces respecting which we are altogether ignorant.

D'Anville makes Thibet terminate at the 35th degree of latitude, but the Jesuit Tieffenthaler,§ positively assures us that Great Thibet lies on the north-east of Cashmere, and Little Thibet on the north-west. The shortest road to Cashgar would be to go through Great Thibet, but that not being permitted, they go through Little Thibet, the capital of which, Eskerdon, is eight days journey from the northern boundary of Cashmere. Beyond it is Shakar. Fifteen days journey beyond this, passing through thick forests, we arrive at the frontier of Little Thibet. The caravans take other fifteen days to reach

* Horatio della Pinna, Relazeone della missione del Thibet. Rome, 1742, (4to.)

† Georgii Eremitæ Alphabitum Thibetanum. Roma, 1762, (4to.)

‡ Pallas, Nouv. Mém. du Nord. I. p. 201, &c. IV. p. 271. &c.

§ Description de l'Inde, II. p. 18.

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Cashgar. From these facts the result seems to be, that we may with confidence place Thibet two degrees at least more to the north than it is situated on d'Anville's maps. The Moos-Tag, or "Snowy Mountains," form, according to the Russian accounts, the northern boundary of Thibet, and these mountains are in latitude 38°. But perhaps these countries, without belonging properly to Thibet, are inhabited by small nomade hordes, dependent on the sovereigns of that country. This seems to have been the opinion of the missionaries.* Perhaps these countries form what d'Anville has marked Turk-endh on his maps; perhaps also Turk-hend and Little Thibet are the same. Turk-hend seems to mean "Turkestan on the Indus."

Various names.

The general name of these countries is equally uncertain as their boundaries. The inhabitants call them Pont or Bhout, or, adding the termination signifying country, *Bhout-yid*,† which appears to mean "the country of the god Boodha." The name of Thebet, Thibet, or Tobbat, known to the Persians and Arabians, does not seem to be used in the country itself. Perhaps it is only a corruption of the Thibetian words, *Ten-boot*, "kingdom of Boot."‡ The Chinese call it *Dshan*; the Mongols, *Baran-Tala*, or, "the country on the right," and sometimes include it under the name of Tangoot.§

Mountains.

Geographers have spoken with admiration of the stupendous chain of mountains of Thibet, but we have not been able to procure a geographical description of their direction or extent. Those of the south-west and south are at first very high and very steep. They were till lately considered as the sources of the great river Ganges, but it has now been found that the rivers formerly supposed to run into the Ganges, are tributaries of the Indus. Behind these mountains several valleys and plateaux are extended, partly included in Indostan. These are the Himmaleh mountains, the Imaus, and the Hemodus of the ancients: they seem to bend in a semi-circular form in a south-east

* Duhalde, IV. p. 464.

† Wahl, Ostindien, I. 188.

‡ Georgii, Alphab. Thibet.

§ Pallas, l. c. I. 202.

direction from the sources of the Ganges to the frontiers of Asham. To the north of the river Sampoo a parallel chain rises; and still farther north there are several large lakes. The chief elevation seems to be in the centre to the south of lake Terkiri. It is called Koiran, a name which may be extended to the whole chain, although that of Kantel is given to the western part. Here our present knowledge ends. We do not know if these chains bear the Indian and Chinese name of Kentaisse or Kantaiskan, and the Tartar name of Mus-Tag; these mountains are perhaps detached groups, and Thibet, communicating all along with the Kalmuks and Mongols, perhaps gradually passes into the plateau of central Asia. The principal valleys of this system of mountains lie east and west, and are generally open only on the south-east. Great natural features of this sort are worthy of our attention, even to prepare us for forming a true theory of the earth. Chumularia, near Phari, on the frontier of Bootân, is one of the most elevated peaks. On the west is the peak of Langoor, which seems to be an extinguished volcano.*

Rivers. Brahmapootra.

The chief river of Thibet is the Berhampooter, or Brahmapootra, "the river of Brahma," which receives numerous tributaries in Thibet, and among others the Sampoo. Its course is first east, then south-east for a space of nearly a thousand miles, to the confines of Thibet and Asham, where it takes a turn to the south-west, and seems to suffer a distortion, in order to flow into the sea close by the mouth of the Ganges, with which it is apparently confounded; this lower part of its course is nearly 400 miles long.

The Hoan-Ho and the Kian-Ku also derive their origin from the eastern confines of Thibet. The Irawaddy, the May-Kian of Laos, the great river of Cambodia, and the Nookian, which falls into the sea near Martaban, in the Gulf of Pegu, derive their sources from the eastern part of Thibet.

Lakes.

These mountainous regions contain numerous lakes. The largest is the Terkiri, about seventy miles long and

* Alphab. Thibet. p. 447.

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twenty-five broad. The Chinese lamas, to whom we owe the only map that we have of Thibet, have placed several other lakes in the northern parts of the country. We know for certain that there is a very singular one, which furnishes tincal or crude borax. Another to the south of Lassa, and called Palte or Yambro, is in another respect equally extraordinary. The greater part of its area is occupied with an island. It is, in fact, a large ditch or canal, five miles and a half broad, surrounding an island about a hundred miles in diameter.* The smaller lakes even in the southern part of Thibet are frozen in winter to a great depth.

Climate. Temperature.

The seasons in this country observe a great uniformity both in their respective temperatures, duration, and periodical return. They seem to follow the same divisions as those of Bengal. The spring, from March till May, is remarkable for great changes in the atmosphere, powerful heats, and the frequency of thunder. The rainy season lasts from June to September; heavy rains then fall without intermission, the rivers become enlarged, run with great rapidity, and swell the inundations of Bengal. From October to March, the sky, constantly serene, is rarely darkened by mists or by clouds. For three months of that season the cold is perhaps more rigorous than in any part of Europe. It is of a dry and piercing quality; and, though in a latitude of 26° on the confines of the torrid zone, it vies with that of the Alps under the parallel of 46°.

Climate of Bootân.

This rude and frozen climate becomes milder to the south of the Himmaleh. Turner assures us that Bootân, notwithstanding its shapeless and irregular mountains, is covered with a perpetual verdure, and adorned with forests consisting of trees of astonishing size. The sides of the mountains are levelled, laboured, and sown by the industrious inhabitants, and covered with orchards, cornfields, and villages. Thibet Proper, on the contrary, presented to Captain Turner's view nothing but low hills bristled with rocks affording no appearance of vegetation,

* Alphab. Thibet. p. 451.

—or dry plains of uniform and gloomy aspect. The cold obliges the inhabitants to seek for shelter in the hollow valleys and in caverns. BOOK XLV.

The vegetation of Thibet is little known; the most scientific account that we have embraces only the southern part between the parallels of 27° and 29°.* Its agriculture has great physical obstacles to contend with. At the approach of winter the valleys are generally under water; yet the rays of an ardent sun soon bring the grain to maturity. The autumn being clear and serene, the farmer spreads his corn on the ground to dry, then employs oxen to tread it. The common species of grain are wheat, peas, and barley. Rice grows only in the southern parts. Turnips, pumpkins and cucumbers are abundant. The greater part of the plants which travellers have noticed are such as are met with also in Europe and in Bengal. At the foot of the mountains are forests of bamboos, bananas, aspens, birches, cypresses, and yew-trees. The ash is remarkably large and beautiful, but the firs small and stunted. On the snow-clad mountains grows the *Rheum undulatum*, which the natives use for medicinal purposes. The country contains, both in a wild and cultivated state, peaches and apricots, apples, pears, oranges, and pomegranates. Among the plants, shrubs, and undershrubs, Saunders mentions the *Arbutus uva ursi*, the *Vitis idæa*, or common whortle-berry, the *Datura ferox*, or Chinese whortleberry, which is common to China and Thibet, and, like our species the *Stramonium*, a powerful narcotic. There is a species of *Laurus* which produces a root called the bastard cinnamon. Marco Polo mentions this production, which is common in every part of Thibet, under the name of zenzero or ginger. The *Cacalia Saracenica* serves for the manufacture of *chong*, a spirituous and slightly acid liquor. Vegetation. Agriculture.

Bootân possesses few wild animals except monkies; but Thibet swarms with them. The musk animal sports Animals.

* Saunders, in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. LXXIX. p. 79—106.

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among these icy Alps. He becomes the prey of the ounce, and various other species resembling the tiger; but it is not probable that the true tiger often removes into so cold a country. The bear, the wild horse, and the lion, are still mentioned among the animals of the country.* According to Marco Polo, there are some dogs as large as asses. The tame horses are small, but full of spirit and restive. The cattle are only of middling height. There are numerous flocks of sheep, generally of a small breed. Their heads and legs are black, their wool fine and soft, and their mutton excellent. It is eaten in a raw state, after having been dried in the cold air, and seasoned with garlic and spices. The goats are numerous, and celebrated for their fine hair, which is used in the manufacture of shawls. This grows under the coarser hair. We must not omit the *yak* or grunting ox,† which nature has furnished with long and thick hair, and a tail singular for its silky lustre and undulating form. In all the east this last is an article of luxury.

Fish, &c.

Marco Polo had already mentioned that fish are abundant in the lakes of Thibet; the fact is confirmed by modern travellers, and the particulars which they give lead us to think that several of them are species not hitherto known to our ichthyologists. This author says that the lakes also contain coral.

Mines.

Since the visit paid to this country by Turner, we are in possession of a more extensive acquaintance with its mineralogy. In Bootân this traveller only found iron and a small quantity of copper. Thibet Proper, on the contrary, contains wealthy mines; gold is found in large quantity, as was stated by Polo, sometimes in the form of a powder in the beds of the rivers, at other times in large masses or irregular veins, in a gangue of hornstone or quartz. There is a lead mine two days journey from Teshoo-Lomboo; the ore is galena, and seems to contain silver. The Thibetians work cinnabar

* Alphabet. Thibet. p. 450.

† See a plate of this animal in Captain Turner's account of Thibet.

mines, which are rich in quicksilver; and they employ that metal as a specific in the same diseases for which it is used in Europe. There are some strong appearances of copper mines. Rock salt is very common; but in general the want of fuel operates as a discouragement to the working of metals.

Tinkal or borax.

Mineral waters are abundant. We must take particular notice of that production which is peculiar to Thibet, tinkal or crude borax. According to Mr. Saunders, who accompanied Capt. Turner, the lake from which tinkal and rock-salt are obtained is fifteen days journey north from Teshoo-Lomboo. Surrounded on all sides by rocky mountains, it receives no rivulets, but is fed by brackish springs rising from the bottom of the lake itself. The tinkal is found crystallized in the lake, and is taken up in large masses, which are then broken for the convenience of carriage, and exposed to dry. This article, though gathered for a considerable length of time, has no appearance of suffering diminution, and most probably is continually formed anew. The lake is said to be at least twenty miles in circumference. For a part of the year it is frozen over. In Thibet tinkal is employed for soldering, and as a flux for promoting the fusion of gold and silver. At some future period a number of natural curiosities will undoubtedly be found in these mountainous regions. A large harvest awaits in this quarter both the painter and the naturalist. From what we know already of Thibet, it seems to be another Switzerland on a larger scale. On the north of Tassisudon, Mr. Saunders observed a singular rock, which in the front view formed six or seven pilastres of large circumference, and nearly a hundred feet in height. The mass, partially detached from the mountain, projects in a manner highly picturesque over a large waterfall.

Geographical divisions.

The geographical divisions of Thibet are enveloped in much obscurity. The terms, "high Thibet," "middle Thibet," and "low Thibet," seem to be arbitrary and vague. Father Georgius* mentions the following

* Alphab. Thibet, p. 417.

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provinces: Latak, a kingdom to the west, in which he includes little Thibet; the kingdom of Nagari; Hor, with lake Terkiri, Kiang, Daum, and the principality of Kahang. These four are in the north:—Amdoa (the Ard-Andam of M. Polo,) a kingdom to the east; Brediong or Bramasiong, a kingdom to the south; together with Tacpoo, the Bootân of the English travellers, and Combo or Concpo; in the centre the province of Ou, the Wey of the Chinese geography, and that of Szang or Chang. But several questions may be asked relative to these alleged provinces.—Is Latak a detached sovereignty, as some have maintained;* Are not the provinces of Hor and Kiang subdivisions of the kingdom of Nagari? That of Daum seems to be subject to Kahan; that of Combo probably to Tac-po. By these unions we may reduce the number of divisions to eight kingdoms, in conformity with the account of M. Polo. But the mixture of Chinese, Thibetian, and Mongolian names, together with the extreme imperfection of the maps constructed by the Chinese lamas, render any discussion of these points as useless as it would be tedious.

Doubts regarding them.

We have little information concerning the towns of Thibet. The greater part of the places marked on the map seem to be nothing more than villages, or groupes of cabins each surrounding some temple. According to the official Chinese geography, the whole of Thibet contains sixteen towns.† Lassa or Dsassa, the capital, is situated in the province of Ou, in a large plain. It is a small city, but the houses are built of stone, very spacious and very lofty. It is the seat of the Thibetian government, and of the Chinese mandarins who are appointed as overseers. It is inhabited by merchants and artisans. The famous mountain seven miles to the east of Lassa, on which is the palace of the Great Lama, is called Puta-La, or "the holy mountain." According to

Towns, houses, and buildings.

* Desidéri, Lettres edifiantes, t. XV. Astley's Collection of Travels, t. IV. p. 453.

† Dai-sin-y-tundshi, in fine.

the Chinese, this is only the name of the palace, while the mountain is called Mar-Buli. This palace or temple, crowned with a gilt dome, is sixty-two Chinese fathoms in height. The exterior is said to be decorated with numberless pyramids of gold and silver, and the ten thousand rooms of the interior contain an immense number of idols of the same precious materials. Sera is a monastery, with a town, at a short distance from Lassa. In it we may recognize *Sera* the metropolis, mentioned by ancient writers.* Teshoo-Lomboo, a monastery in which the second Lama resides, contains three or four hundred apartments inhabited by monks, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the Lama. The buildings are all of stone, with flat roofs, and parapets of heath and small boughs. Capt. Turner also gives a description of some other palaces and strong castles. The forms of the bridges are varied and romantic. Sometimes they are formed of chains extending from one precipice to another: in other cases they are of beams, with one end fixed in the bank on each side, while the other ends advancing with a certain elevation support a small platform, exhibiting altogether the upper section of an octagon.

Bridges.

Tassisudon in the south is the residence of the prince of Bootân, a vassal to the Lama of Teshoo-Lomboo. Latak in the west, the capital of the kingdom, is said to be a large town. We have mentioned Ciangla or Dsancloo from Marco Polo. The same traveller mentions a town called Sook or Sookoor, near which the true rhubarb grows. Forster considers this as belonging to Thibet.† We have already mentioned it in speaking of Tangoot, as well as that of Selim or Serin, a trading place frequented by the Chinese.

Different towns.

Little Thibet seems to be a country physically and politically distinct from Great Thibet, and is situated to the north-west and north of Cashmere. Ascardo or Eskerdon is its capital. The two leading streams which form

Little Thibet.

* Pallas, Mém. du Nord, I. 206.

† Foster, Voyages au Nord, t. II. p. 382.

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the Indus take their rise in this country, or at least flow through it, one from the north-west, and another from the south-east, and meet in a point, and the river formed by their union runs a long way in a westerly course, passing through the range of the Hindoo-Coosh, retaining the same direction for a great way before it assumes its principal direction, which is south and a very little west. The geography of the upper part of the Indus has been only of late understood; the stream which runs from the south-east, being formerly only known in the upper part of its course, was supposed to be one of the sources of the Ganges, and thus we find it delineated in many maps. The city of Ladak is situated at the confluence of the two rivers, the one from the north-west, and the other from the south-east. In some maps we find another river farther south, running from the south-east parallel to the one last mentioned, and joining the united river formed by the two last; and this parallel stream receives the name of the Indus. The Sutledge is another river, which rises near the mutual boundary of Great and Little Thibet, crosses the Himmaleh range about two degrees and a half to the south of Cashmere, and sends its waters across the Punjaub to fall into the Indus. Merchants from Cashmere repair regularly to Yarkand in Little Bukharia, passing through Little Thibet. They rendezvous at Ladak, from which they travel chiefly along the north-west tributary of the Indus.*

Remarks on the country of the Beloot-Tag.

Little Thibet seems to include several provinces famous for their ancient connections. The country of the Beloor, situated to the east of Badakshan or Balascia, contains mountains covered with eternal snow. Some savages wander in the midst of immense forests; but between these chains of mountains a wide plain was described as opening, in which a number of streams met to form a magnificent river bordered with rich meadows, in which flocks of

* The account of the rivers given in the original is somewhat different, and the author refers to Wilford, in the 6th volume of the Asiatic Researches. More precise information has now been obtained by the researches of various British officers. See Mr. Elphinstone on the kingdom of Caubul, and Mr. Hugh Murray's Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Asia.——TR.

antelopes bounded; and where a horse, previously emaciated, would recover his vigour in a few days. This plain was called Pamer, or rather *Panir*,* "the country of rills."† In this description of M. Polo, we can scarcely fail to recognise the north-west extremity of Little Thibet, where one of the streams which forms the Indus takes its rise. We find in this same country, but on the opposite side, Parestan with the town of Pader,‡ where we have placed the *Padæi* of Herodotus, and the *Pariani* of Mela. The name of Baltistan,§ or in Sanscrit *Baladeshan*,‖ which seems to include the whole of Little Thibet, reminds us of the *Byltæ* of Ptolemy. This whole country belongs to India as known to the Persians, to Herodotus, and to Ctesias. It has been considered as the *Serica* of a later period, though Mr. Murray gives strong arguments to show that Serica must have been situated much farther to the east.¶

Plain of Pamer.

Parestan, &c.

It is very probable that many of the customs described by Marco Polo are still preserved in the vast provinces of Thibet. Modern accounts contain nothing but insulated and imperfect remarks on the subject. Captain Turner describes the Thibetians as a mild and open set of people. The men are stout, and have a little of the Mongol features. The complexion of the women is brown, but enlivened with a mixture of fresh red. The clear atmosphere of the mountains keeps them in good health.

Character of the Thibetians.

Marriages are concluded without much preliminary ceremony: if the proposal of the lover is approved of by the relations of the female, the latter repair along with their daughter to the house of their intended son-in-law. The friends and acquaintance of the parties form their marriage train. Three days are passed in the amusements of dan-

Marriages.

* MS. quoted by Muller, in M. Polo, de Reb. Orient. I. 37.

† From *Pan* or *Panir*, water, or spring in Sanscrit, (*Vand* in Danish). The country called *Vanda-banda* by Ptolemy perhaps derives its name from the *union of waters*. The *Paropamisus* of the ancients is *Para-panis*, "the mountain of springs or rills."

‡ Map of Cashmere, of Le Gentil. Ayen Akberti, II. p. 152. Tiefenthaler, I. 50. (in German).

§ Lettres édifiantes XV. 188.

‖ Ezoorvedam, II. 118.

¶ See note p. 462.

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cing and music; and, when these have elapsed, the marriage is considered as concluded. The priests, debarred from every kind of transactions with females, have no share in the celebration of marriages; but the conjugal union is considered as indissoluble. The husband has not the power of discarding a wife who is disagreeable to him, nor a wife that of leaving her husband, unless the same consent which created the union authorises the separation, and in that case neither of the parties is allowed to form a fresh connexion. One singularity of Thibet is, that polygamy is allowed in this country in a sense the reverse of that which is customary in other parts of the eastern world. Here the women are allowed a plurality of husbands. The eldest brother of a family has the privilege of choosing his wife; but she becomes the common property of all the brothers, whatever be their number. This system, necessarily so unfavourable to population, existed also among the Nabathean Arabs, although Pallas calls the fact in question.*

Plurality of husbands.

Rubruquis says that the Thebetians once practised the abominable custom of eating the bodies of those relations who died of old age, and that this when given up was replaced by that of drinking out of the skulls of their ancestors. The moderns make no mention of either of these customs. They tell us that the mortal remains of the Great Lama are preserved in a large shrine; that the bodies of the subordinate priests are burned, and their ashes preserved in small hollow images; while the bodies of the unconsecrated multitude are thrown out to be devoured by birds of prey, in large inclosures encircled with walls.

Funerals.

The common Thibetian language resembles in its numerous monosyllables and the absence of particles and inflections, the wretched idiom of the Chinese. Like the latter, the Thibetians, in order to communicate their thoughts, are obliged to describe figures in the air or in sand. The Thibetian writings which have been found among the

Language.

* Duhalde, IV. 572. Pallas, I. 217.

Kalmuks are no where to be paralleled for obscurity.* Their works on religion are written in a sacred language, approaching to the Sanscrit. Rubruquis had mentioned previously to Capt. Turner, that the Thibetians write like the Europeans from left to right.† They give the name of *uchen* to the characters which they employ for printed works; those which are employed for correspondence and other ordinary purposes are called *min*. Both are alphabetical letters, but accompanied with numerous contractions which give them something of a syllabic nature.‡ The Thibetian year is lunar, and the month consists of 29 days.

Written characters.

The industry of this people finds exercise in the manufacture of shawls or woollen stuffs. The elegant goat's hair of which the shawls are made is mostly exported in a raw state to Cashmere. The Chinese procure from Thibet pale gold dust, coral, lamb's skins, musk, and woollen stuffs. They sell their tea and their porcelain to the Thibetians. To Nepaul Thibet sends rock salt, tinkal or crude borax, and gold dust; and receives in exchange silver coin, copper, rice, and coarse cotton stuffs. Through the medium of Nepaul, Thibet formerly carried on a trade with Bengal in gold dust, borax, and musk; the returns consisting of draperies, spices, veils, emeralds, sapphires, lapislazuli, and jet. The jealous and timid policy of China, however, has now excluded foreign merchants from this country. No money is coined in Thibet, being forbidden by the principles of the established religion, and the adulterated coin of Nepaul is the common medium of exchange.

Industry.

The leading feature of Thibet as a country, is that of being the chief seat of a religion which prevails over central Asia, and the spiritual head of which, the Dalaï-Lama, is also the legal sovereign of the country, and col-

Religion.

* Muller, Descript. Tangut. in Sibir. repertis 1747. Petersb. Bayer, Mus. Sin. Pref. p. 109. Georgii Alphab. Thibet.

† Rubruquis, ch. 37.

‡ Cassiano Bellgatti, Alphabetum Tangutan. s. Thibetan. Rom. 1773.

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lects its revenues, though the Chinese emperors have got absolute command of them by a military occupation of the chief places, under the pretext of a pious protection. The superstitions of Central Asia are divided into three principal branches, Shamanism, Braminism, and Lamaism.

Distinction between Shamanism, Brahminism, and Lamaism.

Shamanism has the honour of being the most ancient of the three creeds. It is mentioned by Strabo, Clement of Alexandria, and Porphyry. Strabo gives the professors of it in his time the name of Ghermans, Clement that of Sarmans, and Porphyry that of Samaneans. The Shaman priesthood cultivated the study of philosophy, and the Brahmins allow that they owe to them all their scientific information. The latter still read the few books of the Shamans which are in their possession with the same respect which we show to the writings of the Greeks and Latins. But the ancient Brahmins accused the Shaman priests of idolatry; persecuted and expelled them from Indostan. This object they only accomplished by degrees; but in the end they obtained such complete success, that for six hundred years none of the Shaman priests, nor any followers of their doctrines, have been found to the west of the Ganges.* The ancient Shamans established no succession in their numberless gods in time or place, and no order of generation. The theogony of the Lamaists, on the contrary, teaches that by means of a mysterious operation executed in the person of the Grand Lama, the same divinity subsists eternally in this supreme pontiff under different human forms which he deigns successively to assume.

Extension of Shamanism.

Shamanism has given rise to the superstitious opinions and practices which constitute the religion of the ancient Mongols, who, deprived of the use of written language, have preserved it by tradition. To this system we must still refer the belief of the indolatrous nations of Siberia, such as the Booriaites, the Yakoots, and some Tartars who are neither Mahometans nor Christians. The cele-

* Pétis de la Croix, Historie du Christianisme dans l'Inde, liv. 6.

brated idol of the Siamese and Peguans, the same which is also worshipped by other races under different appellations, is called Sommonakodom. In the Tartar and Persian languages, the termination *kodom* is the word for a god. In the first part of the name, therefore, Sommon, we see the resemblance to Shaman. The Mongols call this idol *Chichimooni*, and the the Kalmuks Chakamoona; in Thibet it is called Mahamooni, a Sanscrit term, signifying "the great saint." It is the famous *Chaka* of the Chinese, called *Fo* after he was deified.*

Its identity with the religion of Fo and of Budha.

"Fo," says the learned Fischer,† "seems to us to be the *Bod* or *Budha* mentioned by St. Jerome. Bod seems to mean deity in general; and Bod-et-tan or Boodistan, the name given to the kingdom of Thibet, signifies 'the divine country.'" My opinion is that the B has been changed into F by the Chinese; for neither the Thibetians nor the Mongols have this last letter in their alphabet. The word *Bod* makes its appearance in different ways in India and Mongolia. *Paooti-Ziat* (which signifies lord Paooti) is still a name frequently given to the idol Sommona-kodom. *Be* is the name which the Booriaites give to their wise men or sacrificing priests. On the banks of the Ganges the term Boodha is used to express the day which corresponds to the third of our week. Boodha Faran is the term applied to it in Sanscrit; and the expressions Boodda-Iedina, Fan-Paoot, Booda-Kirooméi, signify the same thing among the people of Candi in Ceylon, of Siam, and of Malabar. From these circumstances it appears that Sommona-kodom, Chighimooni or Chichimooni, Chakchimona, Chaka, Fo, and Boodda, are the same deity under different names.

Etymology of the word shaman.

La Loubère, a judicious writer and enlightened scholar, maintains that the word *Shaman* is derived from the *Pahli* language, or that in which the sacred books of the Siamese are written, and signifies a hermit. This etymology is in

* Pallas, Mém. sur les peuples Mongols, II. p. 6.

† Fischer, Histoire de la Sibérie, extrait par Stollenwerck.

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conformity with the following passage of Clement of Alexandria on the Sarmans: "There are hermits which do not live in towns or even in houses; they clothe themselves with the bark of trees, live on the spontaneous produce of the earth, and drink water out of the palm of the hand."

The opinion of D. Kæmpfer does not differ very widely from this. He says that *Shaman* signifies a man exempt from passions.* Besides this, the denominations of Shaman and Talapoin have the same meaning: the first belonging to the Pahli language; the second to the common colloquial languages of Siam.

Origin of the Dalaï-Lama.

Fischer gives a modern origin to the religious system which prevails in Thibet, or Dalaï-Lamaism; he finds in it a mixture of Buddism with the corrupted Christianity of the Nestorians. The Thibetians themselves do not trace their authentic history farther back than the year 790. The travellers of the thirteenth century know nothing of the Dalaï-Lama. Rubruquis seems to have had some knowledge of him,† but he speaks chiefly of the fanaticism of some Nestorians, to whom he gives a spiritual head, whose residence‡ was in a town of China called Seghin. He also mentions another worship practised among the idolators, whom he calls Touïnians, and whom he at the same time considers as Manichees.§ Marco Polo mentions a Chinese town called Zun-Ghoui, the inhabitants of which he considers as Nestorian Christians.

Carpin takes the Oïgoors for Christians who followed the Nestorian heresies,‖ and the Jesuit Gaubil, adopting the same opinion, asserts the Eygoors or Ooïgoors to be Christians.¶

Nestorians spread over Central Asia.

Many other writers assert that the Christian religion is spread through Tangoot, China, and the countries occupied by the Mongolian nations, and has had its zealous

* Hist. du Japon, 1. p. 46. édit. d'Amsterdam, 1732, in 16mo.

† Voyage du Rubruquis, ch. 26. ‡ Id. ch. 28, 47.

§ Id. ch. 48. ‖ Voyage de Carpin, art. 5. p. 40.

¶ Observations Mathématiques, &c. édit. du P. Souciet, I. p. 224.

partisans in the bosom of the reigning dynasties. Yet, according to all accounts in which the present state of these countries is described, no traces of Christianity subsist among them, with the exception of China, where that religion was preached anew by the modern missionaries of the church of Rome. The religion of the Dalaï-Lama on the contrary, is preserved, extended, and established among the people of Tangoot, in Mongolia, in the Kalmuk country, in certain kingdoms of India, and even in China. Might it not be supposed, says Fischer, that Nestorianism was anciently introduced into upper Asia; and that the priests who propagated this heresy, and their proselytes, deprived at so great a distance of all intercourse with societies really Christian, departed farther and farther from Christianity, and gave themselves up to the superstitious practices of the people among whom they lived, till every trace of the Christian character was effaced?

Lamaism substituted for Nestorianism.

According to this hypothesis, which we consider as demonstrated, Lamaism cannot boast of an ancient origin. It is made up of ideas taken from the doctrine of the ancient Shamans, and usages belonging to the more modern worship of the Christians. From the former it adopts the opinions relative to Fo, and the transmigration of souls; from the latter its rites and observances. Lamaism and Christianity, (at least the Christianity of the church of Rome,) have striking features of mutual resemblance.

Mixture of Christian doctrines and rites.

"As for the rites and ceremonies of Thibet," says Captain Turner, "so far as I have been able to judge, they differ essentially from those of the Hindoos. The Thibetians meet in chapels for their religious services; there they sing alternately and in chorus, accompanied by noisy instruments. Indeed I never have been present at their worship without being struck with the resemblance which it bears to that which I have seen and heard in Romish churches." Their monks go with the head shaved. They have their female nunneries. The dress of the Gilons has a great resemblance to that of European priests. These resemblances, which some have employed as arguments against the divine origin

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of Christianity, ought all to be regarded as traces of Nestorianism.

Civil and ecclesiastical government.

Thibet resembles Rome also in another particular. It was subject for some time to secular princes called Tsan-Pa; the Lama resided at Lassa, with a power resembling that of the spiritual prince of Japan. The Eleuth Kalmuks subdued this secular prince, and transferred his power to the Lama.* Differences arose between the old or red lamas and the yellow lama, who by the influence of China obtained the ascendancy. In 1792, the people of Nepaul having committed great ravages in this country, the Emperor of China sent an army to the assistance of the Grand Lama; since which period a chain of military posts prohibits all intercourse between Bengal and Thibet, to the great disappointment of the English nation and of geographers.

The Lama was in the practice of naming a *tipa* or secular ruler, who is now replaced by a *gioon-wan* or prince governor sent by China. The laws of Thibet, like its religion, have a great conformity with those of the Hindoos.

Population.

There is no census to show the population of this country. The Chinese reckon 33,000,000 of inhabitants, probably ten times the real number. The population ought constantly to diminish, if it is true that the number of men exceeds that of women. If we may form an opinion from the facility with which the Kalmuks conquered Thibet,

Army.

we should suppose that this country cannot raise an army of 50,000 men. Its revenues may be concluded to be in proportion to the poverty of the people.

Spiritual power of the Grand Lama.

But this prince, whose temporal power is so limited, is the visible divinity of a great part of Asia. He is the Fo, the Budha himself, clothed with the human form. The divine spirit is supposed after quitting one body to enter a new one; and thus under a succession of forms the head of the church keeps up the miracle of his perpetual existence. It is said that a heavenly odour is exhaled from his

* Duhalde, t. IV. p. 50.

whole body; that flowers grow beneath his footsteps; and that in the most parched desert springs flow at his word of command. It is a certain fact that the refuse excreted from his body is collected with sacred solicitude to be employed as amulets and infallible antidotes to disease.*

Is he the Prester John of travellers?

This mysterious personage appeared to many of the learned to have some connection with the famous Prester John, whose celestial and immortal kingdom so much occupied the attention of the geographers and historians of the middle age. The plausible reasons by which these views are supported are the following: Three travellers, Carpin, Rubruquis, and Marco Polo, have spoken of Prester John, and each in his own way. Carpin represents him as king of India.† Rubruquis gives him the same title, and assigns to him the horde of the Naimans as his spiritual kingdom, which horde, he says, professes the Christian religion.‡ Marco Polo agrees with the Franciscan monk in giving this prince the denomination of Oonk-Khân,§ and in making him a Christian. Oonk-Khân seems to signify "a great prince" in Chinese. This name has been given in a particular manner to a Kalmuk prince celebrated for his conquests, but to whom none of the received notions of Prester John or Prete-Ianni are at all applicable. This word, which by the meaning which it appeared to express in the Italian or French language led the travellers into an error, ought undoubtedly to be referred to some oriental language. Of all the etymologies which have been contrived, one of the most plausible is that of Scaliger,‖ who considers the name as of Indian origin, and with some alteration representing the words *presté-*

* "Il est hors de doute que le contenu des sa chaise percée est dévotement recueilli; les parties solides sont distribuées comme des amulettes qu'on porte au cou; le liquide est pris intérieurement comme une médécine infallible." See Pallas, I. 212.

† Carpin, art. 5. p. 42.

‡ Rubruquis, ch. XIX. p. 36.

§ Marco-Polo, liv. VI. ch. 61, et 64.

‖ Scaliger de Emendatione Temporum, p. 627.

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iéghan, (preste-ghiani or *hiani,)* which signify the "universal messenger," the "apostle of the world."

Have the Nestorian patriarchs any successor?

It is well known* that the Nestorian patriarchs assumed the title of catholic or ecumenical, a title which in some measure corresponds to the last mentioned interpretation of Prester John. If therefore we suppose (and what well informed man would dispute the point?) that the Nestorian missionaries penetrated a very great way into the high regions of Asia, we shall be led by the analogy of the names to consider the chief of these sectaries as the pretended sovereign pontiff of Marco Polo and of Rubruquis; and, as all writers testify that Prester John presided over a Christian community, the inference will be that he was the patriarch of the Nestorian church, or else a bishop delegated by this patriarch, who, exercising a supreme power at a distance from the head on whom he was dependent, received or claimed the proud title of Universal, Catholic, and Ecumenical, though not due to his rank. We are tempted to consider this Nestorian patriarch as the same person with the Dalaï-Lama. It is only since the reign of Kaiuk-Khan, grandson to the celebrated conqueror Genghiz, that we hear at all of the word Lama, or Dalaï-Lama† in Mongolia, the country in which Prester John is said to have held his double empire.‡ Father Andrada was (in 1624) the first European who made mention of the Dalaï-Lama;§ and Bernier speaks of him as an extraordinary personage who was imperfectly known.

It remains to be observed, that the writers of past ages who treated of the Nestorians and Prester John say nothing of the high-priest of the Lamaists; and we perceive, on the other hand, that in proportion as this last personage begins to produce a sensation, the Nestorian name begins to be forgotten among the inhabitants of Mongolia and Thi-

* Renaudot, Anciens Relations de l'Inde et de la Chine, p. 238, &c.

† Rubruquis, ch. 19. Marco-Polo, liv. I. ch. 51.

‡ Gaubil, p. 105, et 143 à la note.

§ Duhalde, t. IV. p. 176.

bet. What conclusion are we to draw from all these considerations? Only that a universal patriarch attracted a sort of veneration and renown under a foreign name, or most probably under his proper title translated into another language. The expressions of universal patriarch, Prêtre-Jehan and Delaï-Lama, may then denote the same person and the same dignity. But as Rubruquis and Marco Polo place the kingdom of Prester John on the track which they traversed, and consequently in Mongolia, and at a great distance from Thibet, it appears still more natural to recognise in this sovereign pontiff only a momentary object, a Nestorian bishop who by his talent held a great ascendency over some tribe of the Mongols. Fame, which exaggerates every thing conspicuous, may be allowed to have created the remainder.

Conclusion.

CAUFIRISTAN.

On the west of Little Thibet we find a small country which merits our notice chiefly on account of the singularity of its inhabitants in manners and opinions.* They seem to be independent, but they are more naturally connected with the subject of the present book than with any other. The country has received from the Bukharians and Afghâns the name of Caufiristan, and the people that of Caufirs, a term which signifies infidel, and is intended to distinguish them from the believers of the Koran.

Aspect of the country.

Caufiristan occupies a great part of the range of Hindoo-Coosh adjoining Afghânistan, and a portion of Beloot-Tag. It is bounded on the north-east by Kaushkar, (a different country from Cashgar in the Kalmuk country,) on the north by Badakshan, and on the west and north-west by Balk. On the east, it extends for a great distance towards the north of Cashmere, where its boundary is not exactly known. It is an Alpine country, composed of snowy mountains, deep pine forests, and small but fertile valleys which produce large quantities of grapes, and feed flocks of sheep and herds of cattle, while the hills

* See Mr. Elphinstone's Account of the Kingdom of Caubul, Appen. p. 617.

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are covered with goats. The grain is inferior both in quality and abundance. The common kinds are wheat and millet. The roads are only fit for travellers on foot, crossed by many torrents, which are passed by means of wooden bridges, or swinging bridges made of ropes of osier. The villages are built on the slopes of hills, the roof of one row forming the street of the row above. The valleys are well peopled. Camdaish, the capital of the Caumojee tribe, consists of 500 houses; and the tribe has ten villages.

Inhabitants.

The people have no general name for their nation. The Mussulmans distinguish them into the Seaposh (*i. e.* black vested) or Tor (black) Caufirs, and Speen or white Caufirs, epithets taken from their dress. All of them are remarkable for fair and beautiful complexions, but those of the largest division wear a vest of black goat-skin, while the others dress in white cotton. They have several languages, all allied to the Sanscrit. They have all one peculiarity, that of counting by scores, which they square, cube, and multiply constantly by twenty as high as they have occasion, in the same manner as we form hundreds, thousands, and higher numerical powers by multiplying ten successively by itself. These circumstances are adverse to an opinion which has had some currency, that they are descended from the Greeks, and were left in this country by Alexander. The only feature favourable to that hypothesis is, that they make use of raised seats, and cannot sit in the manner of the other Asiatics. The most general and credible account of them is, that they were expelled by the Mussulmans from the neighbourhood of Kandahar, and, after a frequent change of abode, settled finally in their present territory.

Are they descended from the Greeks?

Religion.

They believe in one God, whom they call *Imra*, or *Dagun*, but venerate numerous idols of stone or wood, which represent great men deceased. They attach the utmost importance to the virtues of liberality and hospitality; these constitute among them the highest claims to future happiness and even deification after death, while the opposite vices are threatened with hell. They have solemn sacrifices and

long ceremonies and prayers, not failing to pray for the extirpation of the Mussulmans, whom they regard with invincible aversion. Their men, young and old, are honoured in proportion to the number of Mussulmans, whom they have killed or lamed. They have hereditary priests, who possess but little influence in their community. When a child is born, it is carried with its mother to a house built for the purpose without the village, there to remain for twenty-four days, during which period the mother is considered as impure. The women are separated in a similar manner at certain other periods. The marriage ceremonies are conducted without any function of the priesthood. The women are not concealed; their immoralities are punished, but not deeply reprobated. They have slaves both male and female of their own people. They do not enslave such Mahometans as they take in war, the glory of killing them being much more highly valued. It is in the course of violent contests among the Caufir tribes themselves, and in cases of oppression practised by the strong against the weak, that they make slaves. Persons in the servile condition, however, are not ill treated. They have some peculiar customs connected with their funerals. A strange account is given of their ceremonies of condolence: A person paying a visit to another who has lost one of his relations, throws his cap on the ground when he enters the house, then draws his dagger, and seizing the hands of the afflicted person, makes him rise and join him in dancing for some time round the apartment.

Customs.

It is uncertain whether they have any acknowledged magistrates: if there are, they possess very little power, every thing being done by consultations among the rich men. The rich are called khans, a word which they have borrowed from their neighbours; but they have no titles properly their own. Their dress consists of goat skins with the hairy side outermost, or cotton robes. Some have a cotton shirt under their other dress, and they wear cotton trowsers worked over with flowers in red and black worsted. The women have their hair plaited, fastened over the crown of the head, and covered with a small cap and tur-

Government.

Dress.

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ban. They also wear silver ornaments, and cowrie shells. Their virgins wear a red fillet round the head. Both sexes have ear-rings, bracelets, and rings round the neck, which are sometimes of silver, but oftener of brass or pewter. With the men these ornaments are assumed after the age of manhood, with much ceremony and expensive feasting. They are laid aside on occasions of mourning. The houses are of wood, with cellars for the family stores. Their food consists of dairy, fruits and flesh, which they prefer almost raw. They wash their hands before eating, and generally begin with some kind of grace. All persons of both sexes drink wine to great excess, but they do not become quarrelsome in their cups. Their arms are a bow with barbed and sometimes poisoned arrows, and a dagger. They have lately learned the use of fire arms and swords. They generally fight by ambuscade. The Mahometan nations are those with whom they are most habitually at war. When pursued they unbend their bows, and use them as leaping poles by which they bound with the utmost agility from rock to rock. The Mahometans of Afghânistan, and others have sometimes confederated to make a ferocious exterminating invasion of their territory, and have met in the heart of it, but have been obliged, by the harassing and destructive mode of warfare practised by the Caufirs to abandon the enterprize. When taken apart from these cherished and bitter antipathies, the Caufirs are a kind-hearted, social, and joyous race.

Houses.

Food.

Wars.

Kaushkar. The country already mentioned lying on the north-east of Caufiristan, and called Kaushkar,* must be carefully distinguished from Cashgar near Yarkand. If the names are not originally different, the same name is applied to totally different countries. Kaushkar is high and cold. The inhabitants live chiefly in tents. They are at present Mahometans, and subject to four petty despotisms.

* See Elphinstone's Account of Caubul, Appendix, p. 629.

END OF VOLUME SECOND.

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